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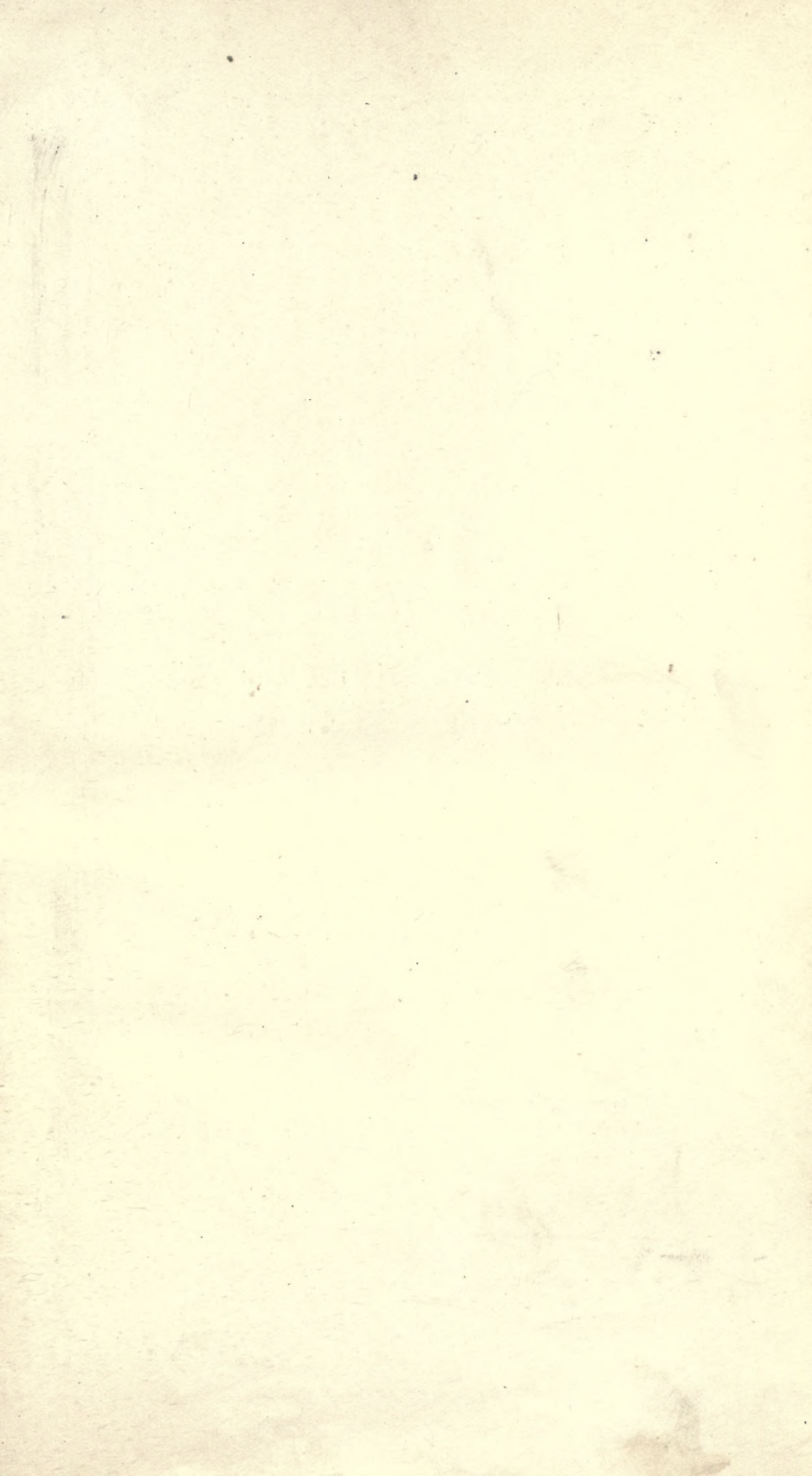
CHEMICAL TECHNOLOGY OF TEXTILE FIBRES

G. von GEORGIEVICS

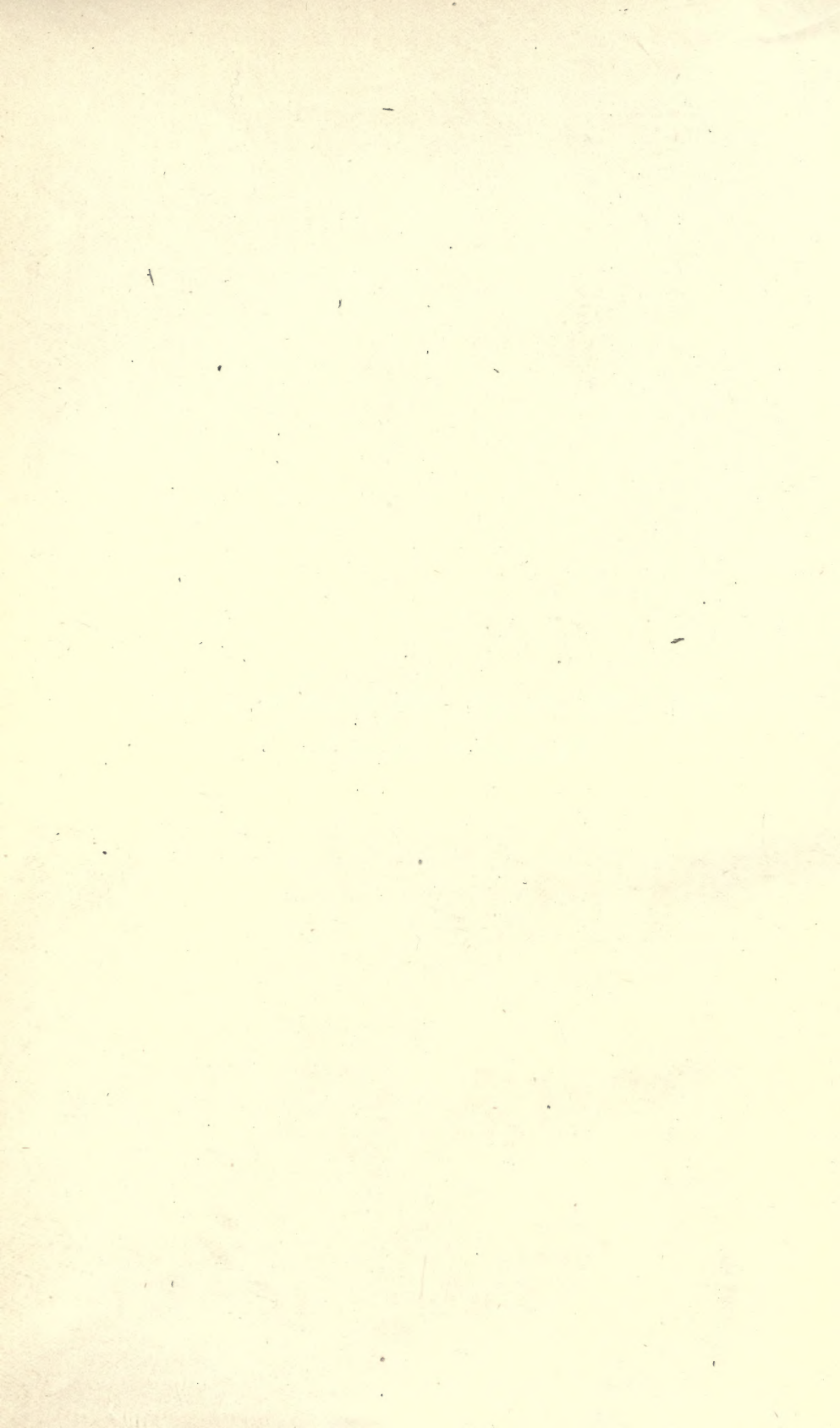
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THE CHEMICAL TECHNOLOGY OF
TEXTILE FIBRES



THE CHEMICAL TECHNOLOGY OF TEXTILE FIBRES

THEIR ORIGIN, STRUCTURE, PREPARATION, WASHING,
BLEACHING, DYEING, PRINTING, AND DRESSING

BY

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WITH FORTY-SEVEN ILLUSTRATIONS



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GENERAL

PREFACE

IN the present volume, dealing with the Chemical Technology of the Textile Fibres (except as concerns the dye-stuffs, which will be treated in a separate work), the author has been obliged to condense the available matter as much as possible, in order to preserve the form of a text-book.

Nevertheless, it seemed necessary, in certain cases, in the interests of the book, to give definite data and an exact description of individual processes. In such instances the details have been gathered exclusively either from the author's personal experience or from reliable sources.

The most important part of the book is the chapter treating of dyeing, whilst, on the other hand, the subject of printing had to be dealt with in a more general fashion, the materials being less suitable for treatment in text-book style.

The author thinks it desirable to point out that in the present work an attempt has been made to completely separate the chemical and mechanical technology of the subject, a standpoint he considers justified by the extensive area occupied by each of these branches. Hence only a few sketches of apparatus have been given; and the methods of dressing the finished goods have been described very briefly, since they almost entirely belong to the domain of mechanical technology.

The author is indebted to Prof. J. Zipser for the whole of the sketches given, and to Mr. C. Schimke, teacher of dyeing at the Royal State Trade School, Bielitz, for much assistance in the production of the book.

GEORG VON GEORGIEVICS

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THE CHEMICAL TECHNOLOGY OF TEXTILE FIBRES

CHAPTER I

THE TEXTILE FIBRES

THE name textile fibres applies to such structures as, in consequence of their physical properties, are capable of being spun and worked up into textile fabrics. These fibres are supplied by all three natural kingdoms, and a few of them are also prepared artificially.

Although nearly a thousand textile fibres are known, only a few of them are of real interest. These are cotton, wool, and silk, followed by flax, jute, ramie and hemp, in a minor degree.

They are divided into four groups :—

1. Artificial fibres.
2. Mineral fibres.
3. Vegetable fibres.
4. Animal fibres.

1. ARTIFICIAL FIBRES.

To this series belong spun glass, metal thread, slag wool, and artificial silk.

Spun Glass.—When a glass rod is heated in the flame until perfectly soft, it can be drawn out in the form of very fine threads, which are used to a small extent in the production of very handsome silky fabrics (cravats, etc.) As spun glass can also be produced from coloured glass, the same method can be applied to the production of coloured fabrics. In consequence, however, of the low elasticity of these products, their practical value is *nil*.

For many chemical purposes, *e.g.* as filtering material for strongly acid liquids, a curly kind of glass wool is produced by drawing

out two glass rods of different degrees of hardness to a capillary double thread. On cooling, these curl up in consequence of the different construction of the two constituent threads.

Metallic Threads.—From time immemorial fine golden silver threads, as well as silver gilt and silver threads or copper wires, have been used for decorating particularly rich fabrics. Thus the so-called Cyprian gold thread, so renowned for its beauty and permanence in the Middle Ages, is now produced by covering flax or hemp threads with a gilt skin.

Slag Wool.—Molten slag is run into a pan fitted with a steam injector, which blows the slag into fibre and furnishes a product which is used to a small extent as a packing material.

Artificial Silk.—This product, which is the most interesting of all the artificial fibres, will be described along with Cellulose.

2. MINERAL FIBRES.

To these belong **Asbestos**. This is a decomposition product of serpentine, and is, chemically speaking, a silicate of magnesium and lime, containing in addition iron and alumina. It is found in Savoy, the Pyrenees, Corsica, Mount St. Gothard, etc., and large deposits have recently been discovered in northern Italy and Canada.

Asbestos forms long, white, glassy fibres; some kinds, however, *e.g.* Canadian, are somewhat curly. Alone it is difficult to spin, and is therefore mixed with a little cotton, which is subsequently got rid of by heating the finished fabric to incandescence. Asbestos fabrics of this kind are generally used where exposure to high temperature is necessary, *e.g.* for packing steam cylinders and hot machine parts, also as a fire-proof material in the manufacture of numerous theatrical requisites, etc. Asbestos is difficult to dye; for this purpose the alumen dyes and substantive dyes are used.

3. VEGETABLE FIBRES.

These are supplied in large numbers by the vegetable kingdom. They are divided into three classes:—(a) *Seed hairs*. These comprise cotton, the whole of the cotton tree, vegetable silk, etc. (b) *Bast fibres*, forming the cambium layer of dicotyledonous plants, *e.g.* flax, hemp, jute, ramie, Sunn hemp, etc. (c) The *vascular bundles* from leaves, stems, or roots of monocotyledonous plants, *e.g.* New Zealand hemp, Pite or Agave fibre, Tillandsia, pineapple fibre, Manila hemp, true aloe fibre, etc. etc. Vegetable fibres contain cellulose as their fundamental substance,

in addition to which they are (or at least some of them) more or less lignified. The larger the proportion of woody matter they contain, the greater their brittleness. Finally, they also contain in their cells and interstices so-called encrusting materials (ethereal oils, resins, starch, colouring matter, etc.), and ash.

Cellulose.¹

As this substance forms the main constituent of all vegetable fibres, a knowledge of its chemical behaviour is of great practical importance. The vegetable fibres, even when in a pure state, do not behave entirely alike towards chemical reagents. Thus, for example, cotton has a greater power of resistance to bleaching powder solution than flax. The name Cellulose must therefore be considered as a generic term applying to several bodies of very similar nature. Cellulose is a colourless, inodorous, and tasteless substance (sp. gr., 1.27 to 1.45), which is insoluble in ordinary solvents. It belongs to the carbohydrates, and its percentage composition is expressed by the formula $C_6H_{10}O_5$, though its true formula is certainly a multiple of this.

Starch is the most closely allied carbohydrate, and may also be regarded as the parent substance of cellulose. Little is definitely known with regard to its actual constitution; it is spoken of as a triatomic alcohol, since when heated with acetic anhydride it furnishes a triacetyl derivative which with potash, soda, lead, oxide, etc. forms loose saline compounds which behave like alcoholates.

More recently, however, a triacetylmonobenzoate and a tetrabenzoate have been formed, from which the presence of four hydroxyl groups may be deduced.

Pure cellulose is almost indestructible and can only be brought into a state of putrefaction in the presence of nitrogenous bodies. When heated it begins to turn brown at about $150^{\circ}C.$; when subjected to dry distillation it decomposes into water, CO_2 , methane, ethane, methyl alcohol, acetic acid, pyrocatechin, etc. Furthermore, cellulose is a hygroscopic substance which cannot easily be brought to constant weight by drying. In water it is insoluble and is unchanged even by boiling for several hours; however, at $200^{\circ}C.$ it dissolves in water, being itself completely decomposed.

Of greater practical importance is its behaviour towards acids and alkalis.

It resists very dilute mineral acids, but is decomposed and dissolved at ordinary temperatures by concentrated acids, *e.g.* a mixture of 1 part sulphuric acid and 3 parts water.

¹ A monograph on Cellulose has been published by Cross, Bevan, and Beadle.

By moderately concentrated acids it is modified, the phenomenon being regarded as one of hydration ($mC_6H_{10}O_5 + nH_2O$). The resulting product hydrocellulose, which has the same chemical composition as glucose, is a pulverulent amorphous substance of some practical importance, being the cause of the rotting of acidified vegetable fabrics. On the formation of this substance is also based a method known as carbonising wool, whereby vegetable constituents present in wool are converted by the action of heat and sulphuric acid into hydrocellulose, which latter, being friable, is then easily eliminated by mechanical means. Finally, the same phenomenon (the formation of hydrocellulose) is the basis of the peculiar alteration sustained by paper when treated for a short time with fairly concentrated sulphuric acid, namely, a kind of superficial fusion of the cell walls of the fibre, whereby the paper acquires the same external appearance as animal parchment. This paper is therefore known as vegetable parchment, and can be used for the same purposes as true parchment.

Whereas cellulose is left unstained by iodine, this reagent turns vegetable parchment blue, like hydrocellulose in general.

Organic acids, like oxalic acid, tartaric acid, citric acid, act upon cellulose in the same way as mineral acids, when the cellulose, *e.g.* cotton, is impregnated with the dissolved acid and exposed to a high temperature; acetic acid, being volatilised by heat, has no action. The knowledge of this behaviour of cellulose is important, more particularly in the calico-printing industry.

Zinc chloride acts on cellulose like a mineral acid. The behaviour of cellulose towards nitric acid is important. When boiled with nitric acid of about 60 per cent. strength, cellulose is converted into oxycellulose. This oxidation product has a much greater affinity than cellulose for basic dye-stuffs, and is also of technical importance inasmuch as it is also formed by the action of other oxidising agents on cellulose,—for instance, when bleaching powder is carelessly used in bleaching cotton.

When concentrated nitric acid is allowed to act on cellulose, especially in presence of concentrated sulphuric acid, nitrogenous bodies are formed, which may be regarded as di-, tri-, tetra-, etc. nitrates of hydrocellulose, according to the conditions of the reaction. These substances are insoluble in water and alcohol, but are soluble *e.g.* in a mixture of alcohol and ether; the dissolved nitro groups can be separated again by treatment in various ways (*see Artificial Silk*).

The nitrocelluloses have been put to various interesting technical uses, *e.g.* hexanitrocellulose, which was discovered by Schönbein in 1847, and was by him termed *gun cotton*. Owing to its property

of decomposing in an explosive manner when heated—water, nitrogen, carbon monoxide and carbon dioxide being formed—this substance has of late years been employed as an explosive and in the manufacture of smokeless powder. In addition to cotton, nitrocellulose is also prepared from jute and starch, which latter is closely allied to cellulose.

A material known as *celluloid* is prepared from the lower nitro products by dissolving them in molten camphor and pressing the mass while warm. This substance has a horny appearance, and is characterised by hardness, elasticity, transparency, and principally by the fact that when merely dipped in boiling water it acquires sufficient elasticity to enable it to be moulded into any shape under moderate pressure. In consequence of these valuable properties, celluloid is now largely used in the production of a large number of imitation articles, *e.g.* ivory, tortoiseshell, coral, collars, etc.

Finally, octonitrocellulose and other nitrocelluloses can be converted into so-called *artificial silk*, also known as Chardonnet silk, after its inventor. On dissolving nitrocellulose in alcohol-ether, a solution is obtained which has long been known and used under the name of "collodion." If this be forced through capillary tubes it forms very fine threads, to which a handsome silky appearance can be imparted by various mechanical processes. In order to fit this product for use as a textile fibre it must be deprived of its explosive properties, a result obtained by denitration, the threads being treated with various reagents, chiefly ammonium sulphide. This deprives them of a large proportion of their nitrogen, and leaves them not more inflammable than ordinary cotton. The first patent for the manufacture of artificial silk was taken out in 1855, but the material was first made known at the Paris Exhibition of 1889. More recently a company (La France) has been formed in Besançon, with a capital of six million francs, for working the Chardonnet patents. The *modus operandi* is as follows:—Loose wood pulp is disintegrated in a carding machine, so as to form a light and very bulky fleece like that furnished by waste cotton; this is dried by steam at 140° to 160° C., and the hot mass is immersed in a mixture of concentrated nitric and sulphuric acid, the operation being performed in earthenware vessels. The resulting nitrocellulose is centrifugalised, washed until it contains only about 10 per cent. of acid, and is then removed in small trucks, running on wooden rails, to the drying room—which must be at least fifty yards away from the factory—and is there dried at 30° C., great care being taken on account of the danger of explosion. The dried nitrocellulose is placed in iron pans on the same trucks and conveyed to the dissolving vats, containing equal parts of alcohol and ether,

the quantity placed in the vats being regulated so as to secure a 20 per cent. solution of nitrocellulose. The resulting collodion is filtered through silk sieves and wadding in closed vessels, and then forced by an air-pump into a spinning apparatus, consisting of two horizontal parallel tubes fitted with a number of nozzles. In the one pipe through which the collodion flows these nozzles are made of glass, with a fine capillary bore through which threads of collodion appear. Each thread is immediately encountered by a very fine stream of water, delivered by a corresponding nozzle of a second or water-pipe, and descends into a water-trough, where it sets hard. From four to twelve of these threads are then united by a so-called collector, whereupon they immediately coalesce, and are then mechanically wound upon bobbins situated about twenty inches above the spinning apparatus. The alcohol of the collodion remains in the cooling water, whilst the ether volatilises, its heavy vapour falling into the water-trough under the spinning apparatus, and having to be removed therefrom by an aspirator. The further treatment of the threads is similar to that employed for natural silk; they are twisted and wound into hanks. Finally, the hanks are denitrated by immersion in a warm (30° C.) solution of ammonium sulphide, which, in about an hour, deprives them of 75 per cent. of their nitrogen; they are then rapidly immersed in a large volume of water, followed by water slightly acidified with nitric acid; finally they are wrung and dried at the ordinary temperature. The denitration process causes the silk to lose 40 per cent. in weight, which, however, can be replaced by impregnation with ammonium phosphate, this treatment also reducing its inflammability.

As may be seen from the preceding brief sketch, the manufacture of artificial silk is dangerous, complicated, and also expensive, notwithstanding the partial recovery of the alcoholic ether. Strenuous endeavours are, however, being made to perfect the process, and already most of the difficulties, which chiefly reside in the denitrating process, have been overcome.

The La France Company reckons to produce 6 cwt. a day, and hopes to be able to increase this to 24 cwt. before long. The cost of production is said to be about 5s. per cwt., while the trade price is about 11s.

Other processes for the manufacture of artificial silk are those of Vivier, Lehner, Cardaret, and Langhans.

According to Vivier, a mixture of trinitrocellulose, fish glue, and gutta-percha is dissolved in glacial acetic acid; the composition of the solidifying liquid is kept secret. The finished product has a brilliant lustre, and is said to cost only about 1s. 6d. per cwt.

Lehner dissolves purified silk waste in concentrated acetic acid, and mixes therewith a solution of nitrocellulose in wood spirit and ether; turpentine and chloroform are used as the coagulating liquid.

Cardaret nitrates purified cellulose, bleaches it with aluminium hypochlorite, and dissolves it in acetone, ether, alcohol, toluol, glacial acetic acid, and castor oil, the resulting mass being broken down and worked by hot cylinders to make it plastic, and treated at the same time with a solution of gelatine, albumen, or other proteid substance in glacial acetic acid. The plastic silk-like mass is pressed into the spinning apparatus, and is finally treated with tannin to impart elasticity. The cost price is said to be about 2s. 6d. per cwt.

Langhans does not use nitrocellulose at all, but claims rather that cellulose can be so modified by repeated treatment with sulphuric acid of varying strength, that it can be used for the production of silk-like threads.

Artificial silk is deceptively like the natural product, and possesses a beautiful gloss; on the other hand, it lacks the necessary strength and elasticity to enable it to serve as warp. The tensile strength of true silk is twice as great as that of Chardonnet silk. Artificial silk can be dyed just the same as natural silk, but a further bad property of the artificial silk crops up here, namely that it cannot stand a warm bath, this rendering it strawlike, harsh, and inferior in softness to true silk.

Another important matter is the behaviour of cellulose towards alkalis. These, when dilute and in presence of air, act like mineral acids although much weaker, hydrocellulose being produced. When air is excluded their action is very slight indeed, a circumstance that should be taken into consideration in the bleaching of vegetable fibres. Concentrated alkalis produce a chemical change in cellulose, whereby the latter acquires a considerable affinity for dye-stuffs—probably this behaviour is also based on the production of hydrocellulose. This reaction is called “mercerisation” after its discoverer, Mercer; it will be further dealt with under Cotton. Latterly, Cross, Bevan, and Beadle have prepared, by the action of carbon disulphide vapours on mercerised cellulose, a mass which is said to be capable of various industrial applications, *e.g.* according to its consistence it may be used as an agglutinant, a loading agent, or a dressing material. It can also be cast in moulds, and when dry is horny, transparent, and may be cut and polished.

According to a patent taken out by L. Vignon and L. Cassella, the affinity of cellulose for basic dye-stuffs may be increased by amidising it (or the fibres) by treatment with calcium chloride and

ammonia at 100° C. The behaviour of cellulose towards ammoniacal copper oxide is also worthy of note. In this solvent it readily dissolves in the cold to a sticky liquid, from which cellulose—partly in the form of hydrocellulose—can be precipitated as colourless flakes by acids. The ammoniacal copper oxide should be pure (free from salts) and concentrated. It is prepared by precipitating a dissolved copper salt by ammonia in the cold and in presence of ammonium chloride, the resulting blue precipitate being thoroughly washed with water, and then dissolved in cold concentrated ammonia to form a saturated solution.

Of the other reactions of cellulose, it should be mentioned that strong sulphuric acid and iodine stain it blue in consequence of the formation of hydrocellulose, whereas zinc iodochloride gives a violet stain. On the other hand, it may be distinguished from lignine in that, unlike the latter, which is stained yellow, it cannot be coloured by means of aniline sulphate.

(1) SEED HAIRS: COTTON TREE WOOL, VEGETABLE SILK.

Cotton.

Origin and Definition.—The name Cotton indicates the downy substance found in the seed capsules of plants of the species *Gossypium* (family *Malvaceæ*). It grows out of the seed, and is therefore a seed hair, consisting of a single cell. The seed is covered with a very coarse, generally yellow, brown or dirty green under-wool, whereas the valuable cotton hairs are much longer and for the most part colourless.

For the purpose of cultivation only about five species of *Gossypium* are important, although about twenty are known. They are shrub or tree-like plants, measuring 3 to 24 feet in height, and thriving in all warm countries, their principal habitat being North America and India.

Gathering.—As soon as the cotton fruit is fully ripe, which occurs in August, September, and October, the capsules burst open and the cotton exudes. This is the most favourable moment for the harvest, and the capsules are plucked from the plant, the seeds and cotton being then taken out of the capsules. The cotton is separated from the seeds by means of so-called ginning machines, of which there are two chief systems in use—the roller gin and the saw gin. The former consists of rollers which seize and draw in the cotton fibre, whereas the seeds cannot pass through but are driven back. The saw gin consists of saw plates, which are mounted on rollers, the teeth projecting through a narrow grid

through which they draw the cotton fibres, leaving the seeds to fall to the ground on the other side.

The seeds are used for the manufacture of cotton seed oil, whilst the cotton is pressed and sent to market in bales.

Historical.—Cotton has been known and used in Peru and India from the earliest times, and also seems to have been cultivated at a very early period in Persia. Thence it probably found its way to Egypt, where it has been known ever since about the fifth century B.C. At about the same time the Greeks and Romans, who previously had known only wool, began to wear cotton clothes.

The European cotton industry only began to come into importance at about the end of the eighteenth century, and may be considered to date from the year 1772, when the first cotton fabric was produced in England. At that time the supply of cotton was chiefly obtained from the Levant and Macedonia, but, later, America became the chief exporter; and since the North American War, India and Brazil have also successfully competed in the cotton trade. At the present time the demand for cotton is principally covered by North America, India, Egypt, and Brazil. The trade is now mainly centred in England, particularly in Liverpool; and the English cotton trade is the largest in Europe. The yearly consumption of cotton in the whole of Europe is estimated at about one million tons.

Commercial Varieties.—In commerce two principal varieties of cotton are known, namely, "long staple," the fibres of which are 1 to 2 inches long, and "short staple" from $\frac{1}{2}$ to 1 inch. The whiter, cleaner, and more silky the cotton the higher the value, but that consisting of short nepped fibres is inferior. The best and most highly prized of all is Sea Island cotton from *Gossypium Barbadosense*, the finest grade of this being also known as "long Georgia," which at present is mainly grown in Florida.

Structure.—The cotton fibre is a single, elongated, conical, epidermal cell, the upper extremity of which is closed, whilst the lower end, which was attached to the seed, is broken off irregularly. Under the microscope the fibre (see Fig. 1) appears as a granular striped band, mostly twisted in the shape of a corkscrew. This is more particularly evident when the fibre has been moistened

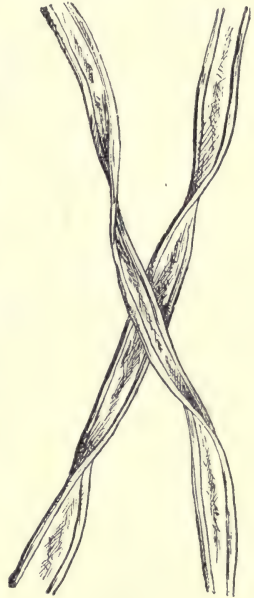


FIG. 1.

with water. This highly characteristic feature may nevertheless be absent in places.

The fibres are not cylindrical but flat, though this is sometimes not the case (in parts) in the finer kinds. There is a central cavity known as the *lumen*, which is generally small in proportion to the cell walls. Consequently the latter are often very thick, though in common grades the lumen is three or four times as broad as the cell wall. Occasionally the lumen is absent altogether, and the fibre is then known as dead cotton, being the immature and imperfectly developed hairs; these then take the dye with far greater difficulty than the normal fibres. Viewed under the microscope it appears perfectly transparent, only the edges being visible.

Externally the cotton fibre is surrounded by a fine skin—the cuticle. The substance from which this is formed does not behave exactly like cellulose, and is considered as a conversion product of the latter under the influence of light and air. Whereas cellulose is rightly soluble in ammoniacal copper oxide and concentrated sulphuric acid, the cuticle takes a long time to dissolve in this reagent. On treating the fibre with the first reagent under the microscope, the phenomenon so highly characteristic of cotton is observed: the internal substance, consisting of cotton, turns gummy, swelling up and bursting the cuticle in isolated places. The cuticle appears as though binding the cellulose as with a cord, whilst in other places it hangs in loops. Finally, the cellulose is completely dissolved, and the fragments of torn cuticle float in the solution (Fig. 2).



FIG. 2.

As the bast fibres, which will be described later, are devoid of cuticle, they do not exhibit this characteristic behaviour when treated with ammoniacal copper oxide. Consequently this reaction affords a valuable means of differentiation. It must, however, be mentioned that cuticle is not invariably present on all cotton, especially after strong bleaching, since under these circumstances the cuticle is mostly destroyed.

Chemical Composition.—Raw cotton consists of (in round figures) 87 to 91 per cent. cellulose; 7 to 8 per cent. water (cleaned cotton mostly a little over 5 per cent.); 0.4 to 0.5 per cent. wax and fat; 0.5 to 0.7 per cent. of protoplasmal residue and 0.12 per cent. ash; together with a very small quantity of colouring matter. The sp. gr. of air-dried cotton is 1.5.

Chemical behaviour.—Broadly speaking, this is the same as cellulose. However, in the presence of water, cotton fibre behaves somewhat differently from cellulose, inasmuch as it is far less hygroscopic, the reason being that cellulose (precipitated from solution in ammoniacal copper oxide) is in a more finely divided state. Special mention must also be made of mercerisation, *i.e.* the peculiar alteration sustained by cellulose when treated with strong alkalis. Thus, if cotton be treated with 28 to 30° Bé. caustic soda for about a minute at the ordinary temperature, there ensues, in addition to the aforesaid chemical alteration, a modification of structure: the lumen contracts and the fibres become much shorter and thicker. The contraction amounts to about 15 per cent., the increase of tensile strength to 20 per cent.; and the elasticity of the fibre is also augmented. This modification is also produced by far weaker lyes than the foregoing, *e.g.* an 8° Bé. caustic soda will partly bring about the same result. However, it is only cold lyes that act in this manner; hot lyes will not mercerise at all. Since the cotton hereby acquires a great increase in absorptive capacity for dyes, many attempts have been made to render mercerisation technically useful, but, until lately, they failed by reason of the great contraction suffered by the cotton. Recently, however, considerable progress seems to have been made in this direction, and in the process patented by Thomas and Prevost the cotton fibres are stretched whilst they are being mercerised and dried, thus entirely preventing the contraction of the fibre, which, in addition, acquires a powerful silky appearance.

Mercerisation is also employed in calico-printing. In the parts where the lye is brought into contact with the cotton, the fibre contracts and the fabric is therefore caused to assume a crinkled appearance like crepon.

Cotton goods, especially dressed fabrics, have a tendency to become mouldy when damp, the mould appearing in the form of yellowish to dark brown spots. In the early stages of development they can be got rid of by energetic washing; but later on this is no longer possible, and at this stage the cotton fibre or fabric will have become more or less corroded.

Mouldiness can be best prevented by storing the goods in dry, well-ventilated warehouses.

Another kind of spotting, more or less violet in colour, is due to the presence of iron tannate, resulting from the action of ferruginous water or solutions on the residual seed capsules (containing tannin) present in cotton that has not been properly cleaned.

Bombax Cotton from the Cotton Tree.

A kind of cotton similar to that of the cotton plant has, from time immemorial, been collected from the fruit capsules of plants of the Bombax family (allied to the *Malvaceæ*) in the countries of production, and utilised in various ways.

The Bombaceæ thrive in all tropical countries, but are little known in Europe. The cotton is found in commerce under various names, such as—vegetable down, ouate végétale, Edredon vegetal, Pattes de lierre. Bombax cotton is soft, lustrous, and white to yellow brown in colour. Being seed hairs, the fibres are morphologically similar to true cotton, from which, however, they differ in the absence of the spiral twist, the presence of reticulated thickenings of the cell wall, and in the inferior thickness of the latter; consequently they are much weaker than true cotton and cannot compete with it. The fibre is chiefly used for wadding and as an upholstering material, though occasionally it is mixed with cotton and spun. Bombax cotton may be distinguished from true cotton by the pale yellow tinge imparted by iodine and sulphuric acid or aniline sulphate, which indicates a slight degree of lignification.

Vegetable Silk or Asclepias Cotton.

The seeds of a number of *Apocynææ* and *Asclepiadææ* (mostly tropical) are provided with a tuft of long fibres possessing a beautiful silky lustre and known as vegetable silk. On account of their beautiful appearance many attempts have been made to spin these fibres, but failed by reason of their brittle character and low tensile strength.

The fibre is readily distinguished from cotton by its lignification, and from Bombax cotton by characteristic thickened strips, revealed in the cell wall under the microscope.

(2) BAST FIBRES: FLAX, JUTE, HEMP, AND RAMIE.

Flax.

Definition and Origin.—Flax consists of the bast fibres from plants of the *Linum* family. The species *Linum usitatissimum* being specially suitable for its production.

The true home of the flax plant is unknown, but it yields, especially in northern countries, a good bast suitable for the preparation of flax. This is the reason why nearly all flax growing countries get their seeds from the Russian Baltic provinces.

Preparation.—In order to obtain a good fibre the plants must be gathered before they are ripe, the proper time being indicated by the change in the colour of the seed capsules from green to brown. The harvest is carried on from June to September, the whole plants being pulled out of the ground, dried on the field, and finally rippled with iron combs to separate the stalks from the leaves, lateral shoots, and seed capsules. The bast fibres amount to about 70 to 75 per cent. of the stalks. These latter are now subjected to a process of retting, a kind of fermentation, the object of which is to decompose and render soluble the glutinous and intracellular substances, which cause the bast fibres to stick together and to the woody matter of the stalk.

This operation is the most important in the entire preparation of flax, influencing, as it does, the final product in the highest degree. It is performed in various ways — water retting, dew retting, mixed retting, warm-water retting, steam retting, and chemical retting. In *water retting* the flax stalks, tied in bundles, are placed in baskets and left for ten to twenty days in running or stagnant water. At first a turbulent acid fermentation is set up, and is followed by a quiescent alkaline fermentation. The stalks are taken out from time to time in order to see whether they are sufficiently retted, which may be recognised by their feeling soft and by the woody parts separating easily from the fibres. When this is accomplished the retting must be stopped immediately, since, if allowed to continue, the fibres would be damaged by over-retting. In *dew retting* the flax stalks are spread out in thin layers on a meadow, and moistened from time to time. This takes much longer than water retting. In *mixed retting* the first part of the fermentation is carried on in water, and the second completed on the grass.

These three methods are also known as "*natural retting*," and the water method being the cheapest is therefore the most in favour, notwithstanding that it does not yield a very handsome product, especially when performed in hard or ferruginous water. Over-retting is also very liable to occur, and an additional drawback arises from the intense putrescent smell given off, in consequence of which water retting must always be carried on at a distance from human habitations.

Natural retting being also greatly dependent on the weather, attempts have been made to supersede it by artificial processes, chief among which is the *warm-water retting* method invented by Schenk. It is similar to ordinary water retting, but is carried on in tanks wherein the water is warmed up by steam to about 35° C. The operation takes from two to three days, and furnishes a product superior both in quality and quantity to that obtained by

natural retting; and is, moreover, the most rational method of procedure. Occasionally the bundles are subjected to an alternating treatment of steam and hot water, the process being then termed *steam or hot-water retting*.

Attempts have been made of late to improve existing methods by employing acids and alkalis. Thus an addition of sulphuric acid to the retting water is in so far favourable that it prevents the repulsive smell appearing during the alkaline fermentation. Finally, also a method of retting has been experimentally introduced, the chief feature of which is a treatment with dissolved alkali.

The flax stalks, having been retted by one or other of the foregoing methods, are well rinsed and dried; it is, however, highly advisable to first pass them through rollers, by which means the greater part of the mucinous matters enveloping the fibres are expressed, and the subsequent separation of the fibres from the wooden matter is greatly facilitated. To effect this separation, the dried stalks are subjected to the following mechanical operations:—

1. *Crushing or beating*, which consists in breaking down the woody matter by the aid of mallets or a stamping mill.

2. *Breaking*.—The stalks are passed between the fluted rollers of a flax breaking machine, whereby the woody matter is still further broken down, the greater part being at the same time removed.

3. *Scutching*.—The object of this treatment is the complete removal of the woody matter, and it is effected by beating the vertically suspended flax with blunt wooden knives. The work is done either by hand or in a machine, the fibre suffering less damage in the former case than in the latter.

4. *Hackling*.—The scutched flax stalks are drawn through a series of successively finer steel combs, which separate any fibres that still remain stuck together, and draw them out parallel. This work is also done by hand or machine.

Historical.—Flax is the oldest of all textile fibres, and has been cultivated in China from time immemorial. Linen wraps, some characterised by extreme fineness, have been discovered in lake-dwellers' habitations, and the wraps enveloping Egyptian mummies also consist of flax fibre.

Commercial Varieties and Statistics.—Flax is put on the market in the form of long, soft, lustrous fibres, the colour of the best kinds being a pale blonde. If the flax has been covered with mud whilst retting, it will have a greyish colour, and is particularly soft. Over-retted flax is dull and brittle.

The number of chemical varieties of flax is very large. The

best kinds are produced in Ireland and Belgium, though a few French and Dutch varieties may also be included in the first class. The beautiful lustrous Italian flax is also highly prized, but Russian, Prussian, Silesian, and Austrian flax, although long in fibre and strong, are of inferior fineness. Egyptian flax is characterised by its extreme length, which averages about forty inches, whereas Silesian flax, for instance, averages only eleven inches in length. The annual consumption of flax in Europe is estimated at about 300,000 tons. These figures, however, cannot lay claim to any degree of accuracy, since the preparation of flax still remains to a large extent a home industry, and as such escapes the attention of the statistician.

Structure.—Under the microscope the flax fibre appears as a long, straight, transparent cylindrical tube of uniform thickness, either smooth or longitudinally striated, and frequently exhibiting transverse cracks. In many places it presents nodes and displacements, which cause it to look as though articulated. These nodes, which are specially characteristic of flax fibres, are rendered darker by treatment with zinc iodochloride, and then become very clearly visible.

The natural ends of the fibres are sharp pointed and mostly attenuated; the cell walls are very thick, and the lumen is so narrow that it appears under the microscope as merely a black streak. The cross section of the fibre is also very characteristic, exhibiting a number of polygonal cells, in the centre of which the lumen appears as a yellow dot (in consequence of its yellow protoplasm). Sometimes, however, and especially in fibres taken from the lower part of the stalk, the cells exhibit a rounded shape similar to those of hemp.

Composition.—The purified flax fibre consists of almost pure and quite unglified cellulose, so that, like cotton, it is stained blue by iodine and sulphuric acid, and is not tinged yellow by aniline sulphate.

In the air-dry condition flax contains about $5\frac{1}{2}$ to over 7 per cent. of water, and various amounts of cellulose, pectin substances,

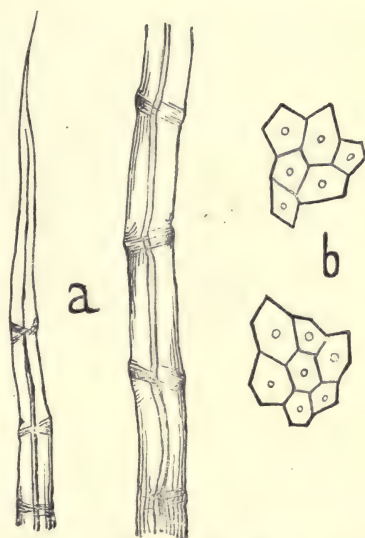


FIG. 3.—Flax Fibres.
a Longitudinal view; b Cross section.

fat, wax, and ash, differing according to the preparation. According to Vignon the specific gravity of flax fibre is 1.5.

Chemical behaviour.—In presence of reagents flax behaves very like cotton, though, mainly owing to the structure, it takes up mordants and dyes less readily than the latter. Moreover, the impurities of crude flax—especially the brown pectin substances—are more difficult to remove than in the case of cotton, and consequently the operation of bleaching flax is harder than with cotton. Flax fibre is more susceptible than cotton to the action of bleaching powder. When treated with ammoniacal copper oxide, it swells up considerably without, however, quite passing into solution.

Hemp.

Definition and Occurrence.—Hemp consists of the bast cells of the hemp plant *Cannabis Sativa*, which, like the flax plant, thrives in moderate subtropical climates. In hot countries, India for example, it yields a defective fibre, though, on the other hand, it produces large quantities of seeds, which are strongly narcotic and therefore used in the preparation of delicacies like *hasheesh*.

Preparation.—This is effected in the same manner as flax, though occasionally the bast is stripped off from the plant whilst still fresh, the product in this case being valued on account of its length and purity.

Historical.—Like flax, hemp belongs to the oldest of the textile fibres. Of all European countries it seems to have been longest cultivated in the South of France.

Commercial Varieties and Statistics.—In commerce a distinction is drawn between clean and stripped hemp. The small waste fibres obtained in hackling are called tow. Since hemp is for the most part coarse and of dark colour, and is very difficult to bleach, none but the very finest qualities are spun, the great bulk of the article being used in the manufacture of string, cord, rope, hawsers, etc., for which its great strength renders it particularly suitable.

The handsomest varieties of hemp come from Italy, and among these Bologna hemp occupies the first place, being fairly white, lustrous, very fine, and flexible. Next to the Italian kind comes Grenoble hemp. The largest quantities are, however, obtained from Russia, whilst other hemp producing countries include North America, Alsace, the south of Baden, Prussia, and Austria. Mention should also be made of the African giant hemp, which, as its name implies, is characterised by great length, the fibres measuring upwards of ten feet long.

About 500,000 tons a year are produced in the whole of Europe, one-fifth of which quantity is grown in Russia.

Structure.—Examined under the microscope the fibre of hemp is very similar to flax, exhibiting displacements, longitudinal fissures, and transverse cracks. On the other hand, the lumen is broad and only contracts to a narrow line near the tip; moreover, the entire fibre is less regular in thickness than flax. The ends of the fibres are highly characteristic, being very thick walled and blunt (see Fig. 4), frequently branching sideways, and thus affording a ready means of distinguishing this fibre from flax when examined under the microscope by a low and high power in succession.

The cross section is also different from that of flax, the cells being mostly in dense groups, with rounded corners, and giving a yellow margin when treated with iodine and sulphuric acid. The lumen, instead of being circular, is elongated, frequently branched, and devoid of contents.

Composition.—In addition to cellulose, hemp fibre contains a not inconsiderable quantity of woody matter, differing in this respect considerably from cotton and flax. According to Vignon, the specific gravity of hackled hemp is 1.48.

Chemical behaviour.—Iodine and sulphuric acid stain hemp fibre green to dirty yellow, the various strata in the cell walls assuming different colours. Unlike the fibres previously described, hemp is stained slightly yellow by concentrated nitric acid. Treated with ammoniacal copper oxide the fibre turns

blue to green, swells up in bubbles, without however dissolving, and exhibits delicate longitudinal striations.



FIG. 4.
Ends of ~~Flax~~ Fibre.
HEMP

Jute.

Definition and Occurrence.—Jute consists of the bast fibres of several varieties of *Chorchorus* indigenous to India. These plants yield such an enormous quantity of fibre that land planted with jute gives a crop from two to tenfold greater than is obtained from flax or hemp.

Preparation.—The jute fibre is obtained from the plant by cold-water retting, and is cleaned by scutching and hackling. Great

care, however, is necessary in carrying out the first-named operation owing to the ease with which jute becomes over-retted.

The fibre is prepared for spinning by steeping it in an emulsion of oil and soap previous to hackling.

Historical.—Jute has long been the most important fibre produced in India, and has grown in importance in European commerce since 1860, when the Crimean War led to a scarcity of Russian hemp.

Commerce, Statistics, and Uses.—Jute comes on the market as a yellow to French-grey fibre. The coarser kinds are worked up in the production of coarse fabrics, sacks, packing cloths, and the like, whilst the finer kinds, in which the undesirable property of growing darker with age is less apparent, are employed for making carpets, curtains, and heavy plush, for which its high lustre renders it suitable. Jute is also not infrequently used along with animal fibres; and it also serves to mix with hemp, though its low tensile strength militates against it.



FIG. 5.
Jute Fibre.

Structure.—In microscopic structure jute fibre exhibits a certain similarity to hemp and flax, inasmuch as the cells in the cross section are grouped, polygonal and sharp cornered. On the other hand, the longitudinal view shows neither displacement nor striations, and the lumen is nearly as broad as the cell walls or even more so, besides being strongly constricted at intervals—a special characteristic of jute fibre. In consequence of the irregular thickening of the cell walls, it is advisable before examining jute under the microscope to treat it with alkali or chromic acid, which isolates the individual fibres.

Composition.—Differing from other bast fibres, jute mainly consists of a compound of cellulose with lignine or other similar body, the compound being known as *bastose*. The specific gravity of jute is the same as that of hemp.

Chemical behaviour.—Jute gives the lignine reaction by taking a yellow stain with iodine and sulphuric acid, whilst aniline sulphate colours it dark yellow. When treated with chlorine the principal constituent, *bastose*, is converted into a compound, which, like cotton containing tannin, is stained a fuchsine red by alkaline sulphites. It may be distinguished from hemp by the red-brown stain produced by concentrated nitric acid. Jute cannot be bleached with chloride of lime since it combines with the chlorine and yields an

insoluble compound with the lime. Consequently, sodium hypochlorite must be used for bleaching.

Jute is usually dyed in an acid bath, though alum should be employed on account of the weakening effect produced on the fibre by mineral acids.

Ramie, Rhea, China Grass, Nettle Fibre.

Definition and Occurrence.—For a very long time silky, soft, and extremely strong fibres, known under the above names, have been prepared in China and India from various species of nettle, particular importance attaching to the fibres from *Boehmeria nivea* and allied species. At present ramie and China grass are no longer considered as being distinct fibres.

Preparation.—Although there are numerous species of nettle yielding handsome fibres, only comparatively few are utilised, the stings of many of these plants having a very powerful action on the skin, and consequently rendering their manipulation very difficult.

Ramie fibres are obtained by stripping the fresh bast from the wood. In China, the freshly cut stems of the plant are first scraped to remove the rind, then left exposed to the sun for several days, after which the bast is thoroughly damped with the morning dew and is carefully peeled off, the fibres being then boiled and dried. As the bast will not easily strip except when the stalks are quite fresh, the successful preparation of ramie entails the employment of a very large number of hands in order to be able to treat the whole of the crop at once. To get over this difficulty, Sansone proposed to store the fresh cut stalks in a solution of bisulphite in brickwork pits. Recently a great deal of trouble has been taken, especially in France and North America, over the construction of suitable decorticating machines for stripping the bast from the stalks in a quicker and more rational manner, this forming the most difficult part of the whole process. [When ramie is prepared in the form of single isolated cells like cotton, instead of cell bundles like the other bast fibres, it is known as cottonised ramie, and can be spun to very handsome yarn. In Europe, ramie is bleached in the same way as cotton, and thereby acquires dazzling whiteness.

Historical.—Ramie fibre has been prepared in India and China from time immemorial, and has also been found in mummy wraps. In more recent times ramie cultivation has been introduced into Egypt, Algiers, Spain, Italy, France, etc.

Commerce and Statistics.—It is only of late that ramie fibre has attained a certain degree of importance in Europe, and this

would be still further increased were the difficulties in the way of its preparation removed.

China alone exports at present about 3500 tons per annum.

Chinese ramie or China grass is generally met with in commerce in the form of slightly yellow or greenish fibres up to about 8 inches long. It is only when the fibre has been bleached that it develops its valuable properties of gloss, whiteness, softness, and strength, which would render this fibre the most perfect of all those of vegetable origin, were it not for one great drawback, namely, that the surface of the fibre, instead of being smooth, is covered with a number of fine projecting fibrils. These greatly diminish the lustre of ramie fabrics, and are also the cause why ramie is not very suitable for the production of body linen.

Ramie is used in conjunction with other fibres; for example, it is spun along with wool, the resulting yarn being used as a weft in woollen-warp fabrics.

Structure.—Ramie fibre chiefly differs from the other vegetable fibres in the great length and breadth of the bast cells, which are up to 8 inches or more in length, and on the average about twice as broad as cotton. The fibre is very irregular longitudinally; in the wide parts it is ribbon-like, flat, and also exhibits frequent displacements and longitudinal and cross fissures. The axial twist noticed in cotton also occurs here. The lumen is broad, the ends of the fibres are thick and rounded, and exhibit a linear lumen similar to that of hemp. In cross section the cells are mostly independent, very large, long and compressed.

Composition.—Ramie fibre consists of almost pure cellulose, without any lignification. The specific gravity is 1.51 to 1.52.

Chemical behaviour.—Iodine and sulphuric acid impart a copper red to pure blue coloration, according to the degree of purification. Ammoniacal copper oxide gives a blue stain, the fibre swelling up greatly at first and finally passing entirely into solution. Aniline sulphate gives no coloration.

The intracellular substance connecting the bast cells has very low powers of resistance against reagents, a circumstance explaining the ease with which ramie fibres can be bleached.

Distinguishing Tests for the Various Fibres.

As may be easily gathered from the foregoing descriptions, there are two modes available for recognising and distinguishing the various vegetable fabrics, viz. the microscope and chemical reactions. In employing the microscope, it should be remembered that the characteristic indications of a fibre are often lacking in places, or less frequently

observable in some kinds, one instance of this being the spiral twist in the case of cotton. Consequently the examination of a single fibre is insufficient, and must be extended to several throughout their entire length. Chemical reactions, or rather the characteristic colorations given by the different fibres with various reagents are largely dependent on the concentration of the latter and on the purity of the fibre. Thus, for example, a highly bleached cotton twist often fails to give the characteristic reaction with ammoniacal copper oxide, owing to the fact that the cuticle may have been removed in bleaching.

It is advisable to use reagents of a constant known strength. The usual solutions are prepared in the following manner:—

Iodine Solution.—A 1 per cent. solution of potassium iodide is completely saturated with iodine; this solution must be renewed from time to time.

Sulphuric Acid.—3 parts by volume of concentrated sulphuric acid are mixed with 1 part of water and 2 parts of perfectly pure glycerine; fresh acid must be added from time to time. This solution will then be of the right strength for examining fibres. When a flax fibre is treated therewith it does not swell up, but on the addition of iodine immediately gives a blue coloration, and not merely a pink or violet.

Zinc Iodochloride.—A concentrated aqueous solution of zinc chloride is added to a solution of iodine in potassium iodide, the following proportions being taken—

1 part I.	30 parts ZnCl_2 .
5 parts KI.	14 parts H_2O .

As to which of these two methods more quickly and readily leads to the desired result, this depends on circumstances. In any event, the microscopical examination is so important that it should not be omitted except in rare cases, the more so because the majority of the colour reactions have to be performed under the microscope. Thus, for example, if a linen fabric has to be tested for cotton—a case of practical importance, inasmuch as linen goods are frequently adulterated with the far weaker fibre cotton—then a simple examination of a few fibres under the microscope will infallibly accomplish our purpose. The loose, flattened, and frequently twisted shape of the cotton fibre is so characteristic as to readily distinguish it from the straight, stiff flax fibres, and in fact all the bast fibres. In this case no colour reaction is needed.

In distinguishing flax from hemp, two important criteria come under consideration—(1) The lignine reaction, hemp being, as a lignified fibre, stained yellow by aniline sulphate, whereas flax is not: (2) The ends of the fibres; these being pointed in the case

of flax, but thickened and often forked in hemp. As already mentioned in describing hemp, a low power (20 to 30) should be used first.

Jute is distinguished from flax by the lignine reaction, and from hemp by the nitric acid reaction (jute is stained red-brown, hemp a pale yellow). Under the microscope the chief distinctive characteristic of jute consists in its irregularly thickened cell walls, which cause the lumen to appear strongly constricted in places.

Finally, as regards the differentiation of ramie from other fibres, this presents no difficulty, owing to the great breadth of the ramie fibre.

4. ANIMAL FIBRES.

Silk, Wool, Goat Wool, Camel Wool, and Byssus Silk.

General Properties and Differentiation from Vegetable Fibres.—As their name implies, the animal fibres are of animal origin, and consequently do not, like the vegetable fibres, consist of cellulose, but of complex nitrogenous bodies of the protein class. In addition, the animal wools contain sulphur.

For the above reasons their behaviour is therefore very different in presence of the usual reagents and dye-stuffs. This difference is already apparent when they are simply moistened with water, which they take up less readily than the vegetable fibres, and which causes them to swell up to a smaller extent than the latter. The practical consequence of this behaviour is self-evident: the animal fibres, especially sheep's wool and goats' wool, require to be more strongly wetted than the vegetable fibres in the course of preparation for dyeing. Nevertheless, the animal fibres are much more hygroscopic than those of vegetable origin, *i.e.* they take up much more moisture when exposed to damp air.

The two classes of fibres also exhibit very important differences in their behaviour towards acids and alkalis.

The animal fibres, wools in particular, are more resistant than the vegetable fibres towards acids, a property on which the well-known method of separation, termed carbonising (*q.v.*), is based. On the other hand, they are much more susceptible towards alkalis, and on this peculiarity is based the determination of cotton and other vegetable fibres in mixed fabrics and wool substitutes. Consequently special care must be adopted in treating animal fibres with alkaline reagents.

The carbonates of potash and soda should be used at temperatures not exceeding 50° C., even when in a dilute condition. Caustic alkalis, except ammonia, have an injurious action on animal fibres

under all circumstances. Considerable difference also exists between the two classes of fibre in dyeing, animal fibres having a greater affinity for the dye-stuffs, especially the acid dyes; the same remarks apply with regard to mordants, a point that will be discussed later on.

In bleaching, the use of chloride of lime is inadmissible for animal fibres, owing to the corrosion produced. Finally, the behaviour of the two classes of fibre when burned is so divergent that this test offers a ready and reliable means of distinguishing between them. On setting light to a vegetable fibre it burns rapidly, and gives off a smell of burnt paper (which itself consists of vegetable fibre), leaving behind a loose white ash. Animal fibres, on the other hand, burn very slowly, give off a smell of burnt horn, and fuse to a small bead of hard porous carbon. Vegetable fibres can be quickly detected in association with animal fibres by warming the sample of fabric with dilute alkali, and examining it under the microscope after washing: the animal fibres will be found considerably swollen and transparent, the vegetable fibres scarcely swollen at all, and sharply defined. Again, if the sample be boiled for about a quarter of an hour in 8° B. soda lye, the animal fibres will dissolve; the residue is then examined for the presence of vegetable fibres, by the combustion test and under the microscope.

Animal wools are distinguished from all other fibres by containing sulphur, and, if boiled along with a solution of lead oxide in soda lye, they will turn black, owing to the formation of lead sulphide.

Silk.

Morphologically, silks are the simplest, and in their other properties the most perfect and the most highly prized, of the textile fibres. The chief difference is in point of structure, since whereas the vegetable fibres are organised, and are products of vegetable growth, and wool also grows as an organised structure out of the skin of the sheep, silk is a solidified secretion of the larvæ of various moths, and consequently is devoid of cellular structure. According as silk is obtained from the larvæ of wild moths or the cultivated silk-worm, it is termed wild or true silk. These two varieties differ in so many respects as to necessitate entirely separate descriptions, the true silk being taken first on account of its far greater value.

True Silk.—The life history of the true silk-worm, *Bombyx mori*, is identical with that of the wild silk-worms, and may be briefly described as follows:—

The perfect insect neither takes nourishment, nor does it produce silk, the sole object of its short existence being the reproduction of the species. From the egg laid by the moth is hatched the sexless form of the insect, the larva, and from this in turn proceeds the pupa or quiescent intermediate form. In order to protect the unharmed pupa from external influences, the larva, before passing into the pupal stage, surrounds itself with a casing or cocoon of silk fibre, which cocoon forms the raw material for the manufacture of silk.

Silk-Worm Breeding.—This pursuit is carried on in establishments known as “magnaneria,” and also as a home industry. The first condition for founding an establishment of this kind is the planting of a sufficient number of mulberry trees, the true silk-worm feeding exclusively on mulberry leaves and requiring an abundant supply of these to enable it to produce fine cocoons. A deficient food supply causes the worm to produce either a smaller quantity or inferior quality of silk. 14,000 larvæ, the cocoons of which will eventually yield from 3 to 4½ lb. of silk, will consume during their lifetime about 9 cwt. of leaves, from which figures it can easily be seen that very large mulberry plantations are required for production of silk on a large scale.

When fresh, the eggs of the silk-worm are yellow, dry, whitish grey, and resemble ordinary poppy seeds in form and size, about 16,000 being required to weigh a lb. For hatching, they are spread out on sheets of paper in well ventilated and slightly damp chambers, the temperature of which is gradually raised in ten to twelve days to 60°, 64°, 68°, and 77° Fahrenheit; at this temperature the larvæ, which are very small, motile, and covered with blackish hairs, emerge from the egg, and are transferred without delay to frames covered with white paper. Only those from one hatching are put on the same frame, in order that they may all subsequently spin at the same time. They are now fed with fresh, dry, mulberry leaves cut up, and, in proportion as the larvæ grow, they must be transferred to larger frames. Uniform temperature and moisture, care, cleanliness, and abundance of fresh food are indispensable conditions for obtaining strong healthy worms and good quality silk.

The silk-worm is an extremely voracious animal and grows at a correspondingly rapid rate, until it attains three to four inches in length and weighs about one-sixth of an ounce. At this stage it is of a floury whiteness, or spotted with brown and black, and its body is divided into ten segments, the foremost of which is somewhat enlarged, and carries the head and true legs. It is interesting to note that these legs are of the same colour as the silk that will

be subsequently supplied by the worm, *i.e.* white, yellow, or greenish. During its lifetime the silk-worm sheds its skin four times, and is at this period particularly susceptible to external influences. After the fourth shedding, the larva lives another eight or ten days, whereupon it ceases to eat, evacuates the contents of its stomach, and moves restlessly about. It is now transferred to dry mulberry or other twigs, where it at once begins to spin, discharging from its under jaw a thread (silk), with which it first forms a loose network or bed, and then begins to spin the true cocoon. This it does by moving its head to and fro, and winding the exuding silk thread around its body in a very regular manner. In a short time it is completely enclosed, and the cocoon is finished in about four days. Inside the cocoon the larva develops a final skin, and is converted into the pupal state. The shape of the cocoon differs according to the sex of the future insect, the females being oval, whilst the males are a little smaller, more cylindrical, and slightly constricted in the centre. They average about 1.2 inches long, and 0.6 to 0.78 inch across. When fresh they have the following composition—

Water,	68.2%
Silk,	14.3%
Waste,	0.7%
Pupa,	16.8%

They are formed of a single, seldom interrupted, double fibre, which is strongest and most uniform at the centre and varies in length from 400 to 3300 yards. The innermost layer of all, surrounding the pupa, resembles a thin skin of parchment. After about ten days the cocoons are collected and sorted. Double cocoons produced by two larvæ spinning themselves in together, or cocoons exhibiting other peculiarities, must be sorted out, being unsuitable for the manufacture of silk in the ordinary manner. Moreover, a certain number of the male and female cocoons are set aside for the purpose of reproduction, all the rest being sent to the reeling house.

The cocoons intended for breeding are placed in a chamber heated to a temperature of 68° F., where, in about twenty days after the completion of the cocoon, the moth, which in the meantime has become perfectly developed, moistens one end of the cocoon with saliva, pushes the threads apart, and crawls out. The wings are kept in constant motion until they have expanded to their full size. The moth is floury white in colour and immediately begins to pair, its life terminating as soon as the eggs have been laid. The eggs are carefully dried and stored until the following spring in a cool, dark, dry place. 1 gm. (15 grains) of eggs will yield over 11,000 larvæ = 3 to 5 lb. of finished cocoons.

Diseases of the Silk-Worm.—Silk-worm breeding is a difficult operation, entailing great care and attention. Moreover, the larvæ are subjected to a number of diseases. At the commencement of the sixties, two highly devastating epidemics made their appearance in the silk-worm industries of southern Europe and India. Their origin was investigated by Pasteur and others, and traced to fungoid growths developing in the bodies of the larvæ.

The Chinese and Japanese breeding establishments are, it is true, unaffected by this disease; but, on the other hand, the Japanese industry suffers another disease caused by a species of ichneumon fly, which bores holes in the young silk-worm and deposits its eggs within the body of the latter.

Silk Manufacture.—The first task consists in killing the pupæ in the cocoons. It is effected in one of two ways, either by heating the cocoons in an oven for two or three hours at 60° to 70° C., or by exposing them for about ten minutes to the action of steam. The cocoons are then sorted, the best and finest being used for the production of so-called organzine, whilst the inferior grades are used for making trame. In weaving silk fabrics, the organzine fibres are used as warps, and trame as wefts. The silk threads forming the cocoons are next reeled, for which purpose they are first steeped in hot water in order to soften the gelatinous matter surrounding the threads, and are placed in a basin of luke-warm water. The attendant who looks after the reeling, then works the cocoons about with a small brush of twigs, in order to find the ends of the threads. Several ends are then united to a single thread and two sets of compound threads of equal thickness are passed separately through perforated agate guides, and, after crossing at one point, are again parted, passed through a second pair of guides and thence on to a reel which is worked at a speed of 800 to 900 revolutions per minute. The mucinous matter, softened by the hot water, causes the loose cocoon threads to stick together and form the simplest class of raw silk thread—*grège*.

Reeling is a work requiring the greatest attention in order to prevent tearing the silk during the search for the ends, and also to secure uniform thickness in the reeled threads. It is a matter of considerable difficulty, and a good deal of silk gets broken during the former operation.

Recently an automatic silk reeling machine was invented by an American, E. W. Serrell.

Working up Waste Silk.—The silk forming the outer layer of the cocoon, and also that of double cocoons, perforated, burst, or otherwise defective cocoons, and the broken ends in reeling, constitute the so-called waste or *florette* silk. These cannot be worked

up by reeling, but have to be treated by Lister's process—namely, scouring with soda and soap, then combed or carded in suitable machines like cotton, and finally spun. There are two classes of waste silk, namely, florette and bourette; the former consists of the better and longer fibre and is prepared in a manner more similar to worsted, whilst the inferior bourette is worked up in the same way as carded yarn.

At the present time florette spinning forms an important branch of the silk industry; nevertheless it is inferior in value to reeled silk.

Historical.—The historical data on the subject of silk are so comprehensive and interesting as to deserve mention in the present work. China is the home of the silk industry, and it has been known there from time immemorial that certain larvæ contain a secretion from which very durable threads can be produced. At one time these threads were used in making strings for musical instruments, and they are even now employed as fishing lines.

The discovery that fabrics could be prepared from cocoons is attributed to Te-ling-Shi, wife of the Emperor Hoang-te, about 2650 B.C. This monarch is also said to be the first to wear silken garments; and his lady was, after death, raised to the rank of a deity. From that time the Chinese silk industry has been closely connected with the history of the country. It was placed under royal protection, and for a long time formed a monopoly of the monarch and nobility.

The ancient Greeks were also acquainted with Chinese silk and held it in very high estimation. Thus, according to a calculation made by Pariset in the time of the Emperor Aurelianus, one pound of raw silk was worth about £24, and one pound of purple dyed silk four times that amount. This price, however, subsequently fell away to a great extent, so that in the fourth century all classes in Rome wore silken garments. Florette silk from the wild Assyrian moth was also known to the ancients and highly prized, namely, the so-called Bombykia, from which the Coan fabrics were manufactured. In India, Persia, and Japan, the cultivation of silk was introduced from China, though it is undeniable that many of the inhabitants of those countries were already acquainted with and made use of this fibre. In Europe, silk was long regarded as a vegetable product. It was introduced during the first half of the sixth century of our era, and it is recorded that about this period the first silk-worms were brought to Byzantium, concealed in hollow bamboo rods, by two monks. The industry thus founded afterwards spread to Greece, Spain, and Italy.

Commerce and Statistics.—At the present time the cultivation

of true silk is carried on (with great care) not only in its Asiatic home, in China, Japan, and India, but in southern Europe, Italy, the south of France, Greece and the Levant. China and Japan are the chief sources of supply of eggs for the European silk-worm industry, the diseases already mentioned having devastated the breeding establishments in southern Europe and India. Nowadays silk culture is making advances in every direction, *e.g.* in Bulgaria, China, and Japan. Although far from equalling European silk in fineness and regularity, the Asiatic silk predominates in point of quantity, and the Chinese production is increasing largely. The early cocoon crop in China is estimated at 270,000 tons, and the total production throughout the world at 460,000 tons of fresh cocoons, equivalent to 28,000 tons of grège silk.

Physical Properties.—Raw silk is usually yellow to white in colour, though occasionally of a faint greenish tinge (Japanese silk), and only after being boiled and subjected to various mechanical operations does it acquire those properties for which it is so highly esteemed.

Scoured silk is distinguished by high lustre, strength, toughness, and elasticity, the tensile strength being almost as great as that of iron wire of equal thickness. The elasticity is also high, a dried silk thread being susceptible of extension by one-seventh to one-fifth of its original length. These two properties mainly reside in the outer glutinous layer and are diminished by about 30 per cent. in scouring. Moreover, immoderate loading (in black dyeing) deprives the silk of a good deal of its valuable properties. When dried silk is moistened it contracts by about one-seventh, and the same also occurs in dyeing.

Silk is a poor conductor of electricity, and when subjected to friction remains electrified, a circumstance which may cause a deal of mischief in the manufacturing process; this defect, however, can be obviated by keeping the factory atmosphere moist. A property possessed by silk alone of all the textile fibres is that of emitting a crackling sound (scroop) when compressed. This property, however, is not originally present in the silk, but is acquired after immersion in an acid bath. No proper explanation of this phenomenon has yet been discovered, but it is assumed that the acid roughens the surface of the fibre, and that the noise results from the increased friction thereby ensuing when pressure is applied.

Production and Structure of the Silk Fibre.—The silk fibre is produced in two glands along the inside of the body of the silk-worm, which glands are in the shape of convoluted cylindrical threads, and occupy a considerable amount of space in the full-grown larva. The glands consist of three principal portions (Fig. 6):

(1) the part *a, b*, where the silk is probably formed; (2) the broader part, *b, c*, wherein the silk is probably stored; and finally (3) the capillary tube, *c, d*, where a partial hardening of the silk occurs. In this manner two threads are simultaneously formed, which unite at *d*, and issue from the silk-worm's head in the form of a double thread, which only becomes thoroughly hardened on exposure to the air. If the silk gland be cut through at the thickest part, it is found to consist of two distinctly separate parts, an internal transparent layer, and an external stratum which is colourless, greenish, or yellow, according to the breed of the silk-worm, and occupies about one-fourth of the total volume. As in the scouring of raw silk, which dissolves the sericin, an almost identical loss in weight occurs, it is concluded that this is formed simultaneously with the substance of the silk.

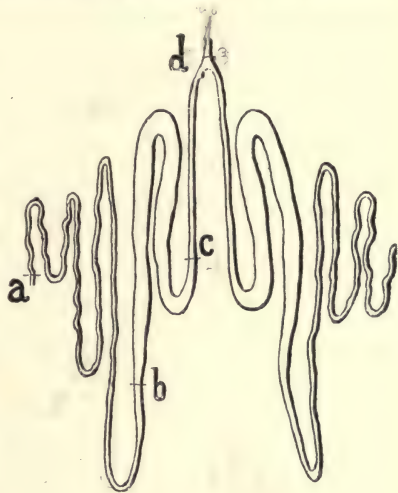


FIG. 6.

In harmony with this method of formation, the silk fibre exhibits under the microscope the appearance of a clear cylindrical double thread, enclosed in a cloudy integument. As is shown in Fig. 7, the two threads stand apart in places; and in scoured silk are entirely separated; consequently, whilst raw silk consists of a double thread, the scoured silk is single.

Florette silk can be recognised by the irregular appearance of the external layer (Fig. 8).

The structure of silk is, however, not so simple as the microscopical picture would lead us to expect; and in fact the fibre is composed of a number of smaller elements or fibrils, connected together by a small quantity of matrix. This can be concluded from the following facts:—

When a silk fibre, exhibiting a slight striation, is treated with chromic acid under the microscope, the striation is rendered more clearly defined. More conclusive evidence is, however, afforded by the behaviour of the fibre in presence of moderately strong sulphuric acid assisted by heat, since if, after impregnation with this acid, the silk be dried and then heated to 80° – 100° C., it will be found, on careful examination under the microscope, to be entirely disintegrated into fibrils, separated by the preceding treatment. A

is sold by weight, it becomes necessary to determine the actual weight of silk in each bale, an operation that is performed in silk-conditioning houses, which establishments will be described later on.

In addition, silk is a very porous substance, and has a high absorptive capacity for all kinds of bodies, *e.g.* alcohol, acetic acid, tannin, sugar, etc. Its capacity for absorbing dye-stuffs is greater than that of any other textile fibre, and is even exhibited at the ordinary temperature. Furthermore, certain salts, used as *mordants*, are absorbed in large quantities by silk, a phenomenon on which is based the operation known as loading or weighting silk.

Warm dilute acids dissolve the sericin, but leave the fibroin untouched; concentrated acids, however, exert a destructive action. Cold acetic acid dissolves out merely the colouring matter of raw silk, without attacking the sericin, though when heat and pressure are applied the silk dissolves in this acid. Concentrated nitric acid stains silk a beautiful yellow, xanthoproteic acid being formed. This coloration is deepened by alkalis but lightened by acids, and is destroyed by a boiling hot solution of stannous chloride. Formerly this colour was utilised industrially.

Concentrated basic zinc chloride dissolves silk to a viscous solution. A concentrated acid solution of zinc chloride also readily dissolves silk, and the solution can be diluted with water without precipitation being produced. When the liquid is dialysed, to completely remove the acid, an aqueous solution of chemically altered sericin is obtained. This operation, though undoubtedly interesting, does not, however, seem capable of any practical utilisation, inasmuch as the bulk of the sericin is thrown down during dialysis, and in no case is the solution entirely free from zinc, however prolonged the operation may be. On evaporating the solution to dryness, a yellow substance is obtained, which resembles colophony in appearance and is no longer soluble in water.

Dilute alkalis diminish the gloss of the silk, and when moderately concentrated dissolve the material in the warm. Ammonia exerts no appreciable influence in the cold, and soap acts merely as a solvent of sericin, though, after prolonged exposure at boiling heat, the fibroin also is attacked.

Silk is soluble in both ammoniacal copper oxide and ammoniacal nickel oxide, but differs from cotton in not being reprecipitable by additions of salt, sugar, etc. This solubility in ammoniacal nickel oxide—as also in zinc chloride—can be utilised as a quantitative test for silk in mixed fabrics, the following method being adopted, according to Richardson:—

Twenty-five grms. of crystalline nickel sulphate are treated

with caustic soda to throw down the oxide, which is then carefully washed and rinsed by the aid of 125 c.c. of water into a 250 c.c. flask, which is filled up to the mark with ammonia (sp. gr., 0.88), the liquid being then employed for treating the tissue under examination by boiling them together for ten minutes under a reflux condenser. The silk is completely dissolved, and the cotton loses 0.8 per cent. in weight. For silk and cotton goods the following method is, however, preferable:—

A solution is prepared of 1000 parts fused zinc chloride and 40 parts zinc oxide in 850 parts of water; and the fabric, after being boiled in this solution for one minute, is freed from zinc by washing with hydrochloric acid (1 per cent. strength). Under this treatment 0.5 per cent. of the cotton (or 1.5 to 2 per cent. of wool, if present) is also dissolved.

Wild Silk.—In China, Japan, and India, the home of the true silk-worm, there are also found insects belonging to the nocturnal peacock moth family, which not only have the same life history as the true silk-moth, but also furnish a very similar class of silk, though differing therefrom both morphologically and in point of behaviour towards chemical reagents.

Although the manufacture of fabrics from the cocoons of wild silk-moths was practised in the aforesaid countries from the earliest times, it was only about 1860 that, in consequence of the silk-worm disease, the attention of European silk manufacturers was drawn to this material.

The chief reason for this is to be sought in the fact that the wild silk-worm makes several pauses when spinning the cocoon, the consequence of which is that the cocoon is composed of several threads difficult to disentangle and therefore unsuitable for reeling. However, since Lister's method of working up waste silk was applied to wild silk, the cocoons of these wild spinners have become an important factor in the European silk industry, plush and velvet in particular being now made in large quantities from this raw material.

The main advantages of wild silk are—(1) Its greater durability, owing to the greater thickness of the threads, though, in consequence of the method of treatment pursued, the true silk threads are stronger in the finished fabric; (2) Greater cheapness and productivity, inasmuch as the wild silk-worms do not require to be cultivated, but spin their cocoons on trees in the open. Moreover, the cocoons are larger and yield more silk than those of *Bombyx mori*, and many of them bring up several broods in a season (2–8), whilst *Bombyx mori* gives only one crop in the year.

On the other hand, apart from the inferior regularity of the

cocoons, the wild silk-worms exhibit the disadvantage of furnishing a silk that is always more or less highly coloured and is very difficult to bleach. For this reason wild silk is mostly spun and woven in an undyed—natural—condition. There is, however, some hope that this difficulty can be surmounted, since, according to the observations of O. N. Witt, wild silk is always colourless when first formed, but is afterwards soiled by the secretion employed by the worm to moisten the spun thread. The coloration thus imparted depends on the plant on which the larva has been fed, and is darker in proportion as the plant is richer in bodies that furnish pigments on exposure to the air. Hence, if the worms during the latter stage of their existence be fed on plants incapable of furnishing such pigments (tannin, etc.), perfectly white silk will be obtained.

On this point practical experiments on a large scale have been successfully carried out, Major Coussmacker having obtained perfectly white cocoons in India by feeding the larvæ of *Antheræa mylitta* in a suitable manner. This result is the easier of attainment in that, unlike the true silk-worm, the larvæ of the wild spinners are not restricted to one source of food supply, but easily stand a change of diet.

The chief wild spinners are—

Antheræa mylitta, which occurs all over India, and yields the most valuable of all wild silks, viz. Tussah silk.

The Eria spinner, *Attacus ricini*, met with in tropical Asia, also in North and South America, yields a very handsome, almost white product, that is daily growing in value. Special mention should be made of one individual of this tribe, viz. *Attacus atlas*, the largest known moth, which produces open cocoons, from which the so-called Fagara silk is obtained.

Antheræa Yamamai, the Japanese oak moth, furnishes a pale green, very handsome silk, which is the nearest to true silk in character, and is highly esteemed.

Antheræa Pernyi, the North China oak moth, yields a silk that is very largely exported under the erroneous designation of Tussah silk.

Tussur or Tussah Silk.—This, being the most important and best known of all the wild silks, will be described more particularly.

The moth (*Antheræa mylitta*) from which this silk is obtained occurs throughout the whole of India and Southern China, and has been bred regularly in the former country from time immemorial, the industry being carried on by organised castes, and attended with numerous religious ceremonies. According to the Hindoo faith, the Tussah moth is the incorporation of the god Shiva; and

the silk-worm breeders must abstain from eating meat, washing, and shaving during the whole time the larvæ are growing and spinning.

The Tussah cocoons are attached by their stems on to twigs, and are reeled, an operation that is very carelessly performed in India. Sometimes the cocoons are brought to Europe; but in that event are not reeled, being spun instead.

Tussah silk exhibits all the aforesaid advantages and defects of the wild silks in general. Chinese Tussah, which is frequently confounded with the Indian variety, is darker in colour and inferior in lustre and beauty.

When examined under the microscope, Tussah exhibits a highly characteristic appearance, differing greatly from that of true silk (see Fig. 9), the fibres showing strong striation, and being apparently much constricted in parts. The very distinct striations are caused by the numerous very fine fibrils of which each fibre is composed. Unlike true silk, the fibre is not of circular cross section, but of elongated quadrilateral form.



FIG. 9.

In presence of reagents, acids and alkalis in particular, Tussah silk behaves very like true silk. It is, however, much more resistant than the latter, especially towards solvents, so that the two kinds of silk can be separated in a fairly accurate quantitative manner.

The other wild silks behave very much the same as Tussah silk.

Byssus Silk.—This fibre, which morphologically and chemically is nearly allied to true silk, is the product of certain mussels which are found in Sicily, Sardinia, and Corsica, and spin a long silky thread, for the purpose of attaching themselves to the rocks at the bottom of the sea.

This fibre is golden brown in colour, lustrous, soft, and elastic. In former times it was extensively collected, and employed in the manufacture of the highly prized Byssus garments; but at the present time it is not much used, its collection being attended with considerable difficulty. From a chemical point of view, it differs from other silks in that it merely swells up when treated with acids, alkalis, or ammoniacal copper oxide, without passing into solution.

ANIMAL HAIRS.

The skins of all warm-blooded animals are covered with a protective coating of horny cellular structures, which, in the case

of mammals, assume the form of hair, and constitute the feathers of birds.

These structures are elaborated in special glands in the skin, and protrude through the epidermis in proportion as they increase in length in consequence of cell multiplication.

Animal hairs are the most complex, morphologically, of all textile fibres, and, after silk, are the most perfect. In point of chemical behaviour and conduct in presence of reagents, they closely resemble silk, and therefore may be classed along with the latter in one group—that of the animal fibres as contrasted with the fibres of vegetable origin.

Chief in importance among the animal fibres is—

Sheep's Wool.

Wool is the name given to the fibrous substance secreted by the skin of the sheep, and forming the hairy covering or fleece of the animal. This covering is composed of several similar elements, whose anatomical structure exhibits different degrees of development.

In the main the fleece of the sheep consists of body hairs and true wool hairs, the latter being thin, soft, and curly, and possessing the valuable property of felting, whilst the body hairs are thicker, darker in colour, and, for the outer third of their length at least, stiffer and sharply tapered.

In a few parts of the body, on the legs and head, of the animal there occurs a third kind of hair, viz. bristles, least of all endowed with the valuable properties of sheep's wool.

The fine wools of commerce are chiefly composed of only one of the above classes of hairs, viz. either body hairs alone or solely of true wool hairs; whilst common grades, on the other hand, form mixtures of both.

It is more than likely that the article we now regard as typical wool is not a really natural product, but one that has been gradually evolved in the course of many centuries of selection. Even at the present time there still exist two breeds of sheep, the Corsican moufflon and the argali, found in Asia and America, in whose hairy coats the valuable properties of sheep's wool are merely suggested. Moreover, it can be clearly observed in the domestic sheep that improvements in the breed by suitable selection produce a corresponding improvement in the wool. Consequently the wools of the highest breeds consist almost exclusively of true wool hairs; though even in the finest wools may be found body hairs, which must be ascribed to atavism, *i.e.* a reversion to the original type of hairy covering.

The circumstances influencing the quality of wool and the percentage of body hairs therein are exceedingly numerous, chief among them being race and climatic conditions. Thus, for instance, in the hot, dry countries of Central Africa the proportion of wool hairs, in even the best breeds of sheep, steadily diminishes, and that of the body hairs as regularly increases. Conversely, the climate of Australia is so excellently adapted for wool-growing that even the poorest breed of sheep will produce a good wool in a few years time there.

Again, the fodder supplied to the sheep has a great influence on the quality of the wool. Grass from chalky soils produces a coarse wool; whilst that from rich, loamy soils gives fine silky fibres. Finally, the quality is influenced by the age and health of the sheep, and also depends on the part of the body on which it grows.

It is worthy of mention that the sheep producing the finest wool yield poor mutton.

Collection.—The wool of the sheep is mostly obtained from the living animal by shearing—an annual operation. The amount of wool furnished by an individual sheep, of course, varies considerably, and depends mainly on the breed and sex, the male merino yielding about 8 lb. at a shearing, the female only about 5 lb. Taking the general average, the yield per head varies from $3\frac{1}{2}$ lb. to 13 lb., though this is exceeded by some breeds—the Argentine ram, for example, occasionally producing a fleece weighing 40 lb. and upwards.

Wool that is cut from carcases or separated from the fells by liming, is known as tanners' wool, and is always inferior to the shorn fleece, especially when obtained by liming.

Historical, Commerce, and Statistics.—In Western countries wool has been used from very early times, whereas in Asia, the conditions being less favourable for sheep-breeding, the article has always played a less important part, though the hair of certain goats, distinguished for its special lustre, has been there woven into fine fabrics from time immemorial.

The home of the sheep-breeding industry in Europe is Spain, where the indigenous merino sheep has been bred for its wool from very early times. In the Middle Ages the Spanish woollen industry was in a thriving condition, and the Moors devoted special care to the breeding of merinos. Subsequently the industry languished, but has recently revived. At first the Spaniards protected the breeding industry with extreme jealousy, and the exportation of a live merino sheep was prohibited under pain of death. This attitude, however, could not be maintained permanently, and, since

the year 1723, merinos have been repeatedly exported to other countries with beneficial results in every instance. Specially important for the breeding of sheep in Europe was the introduction of the merino into Saxony in 1765, the Saxon Electoral breed now furnishing the thinnest and finest known grade of wool. ^

The introduction of sheep-breeding into Australia and New Zealand has been attended with the most successful results. Australia possesses no native breed of sheep, and it was only towards the end of the eighteenth century that the first sheep were sent over. The originally coarse, useless hair of these animals soon developed into good wool under the favourable influence of the Australian climate, and subsequent crossings of the breed with good English sheep brought about additional improvement, which was still further heightened by repeated crossing with merinos, so that at the present time the Australian sheep furnishes a wool ranking with the very best merino.

In South America, also—especially in Chili and the La Plata States—sheep-breeding has long been pursued on a large scale; and in North America the cultivation of wool has latterly made great strides, and will probably ere long attain considerable importance.

About fifty commercial grades of wool are known, chiefly divided into two principal classes—long and short staple, according to the length of the component fibres. To the latter class belong all wools measuring 1 to $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch in length, those between $3\frac{1}{2}$ and 6 inches being classed as long staple. The latter are treated by the combing process, and are used for making worsted fabrics; whilst the short wools are carded for spinning in the production of woollens.

With regard to the wool production of the various countries, it must be admitted that, notwithstanding the increased activity in the woollen industry in Europe, the output of wool in that continent is on the down-grade, owing to the more favourable natural conditions prevailing in extra-European lands; and consequently the import of wool into Europe is constantly increasing. About half the total output of raw wool produced in Europe is grown in Russia.

The trade in extra-European wool is almost entirely in English hands, though latterly a share of the trade has been acquired by Belgium. Accurate statistics of production in the several wool-growing countries are difficult to obtain, European wools being occasionally brought into the market in a partly cleaned condition, whereas the extra-European article is always sent over in the grease (unwashed). The total production for the whole world may, however, be estimated at about 1,000,000 tons per annum.

As regards the woollen manufacturing industry, in this respect

Europe is far ahead of any other countries, and the chief place of all is occupied by Great Britain.

Composition of the Fleece.—The term fleece is applied to the entire hairy coating of the sheep, including all impurities. It is composed as follows :—

Fibres	15-72 per cent.
Yolk (wool fat)	12-47 „
Water	4-24 „
Dirt	3-24 „

In addition to the hairs already mentioned, the fibres contain shorn hairs, recognisable by their clipped extremities when viewed under the microscope.

Structure.—Wool has the most complex and interesting structure of any of the textile fibres hitherto mentioned.



FIG. 10.

When a fibre of wool is examined under the microscope it is seen to consist of three parts, distinguished respectively as the scaly epidermis, the cortex, and the medulla or pith. The outer scaly epidermis is composed of thin horny scales lying one above another like the tiles on a roof. In the finer qualities of wool a single scale is generally sufficient to entirely surround the wool hair, so that the latter seems to be formed of a number of cups set one within another

(Fig. 10, *b*), the upper edge of each scale being also generally projecting, ragged, and serrated. These scales form the chief external characteristic of sheep's wool, and render its detection under the microscope an easy task. They are, however, not always so well developed as the specimen given in Fig. 10, *b*; being in many instances less clearly visible, and in some merely present as faint broken lines (see Fig. 10, *a*). In other cases they may even be entirely absent in places, as, for example, in the wool of several breeds of country sheep where the scales are invisible for some distance from the tip of the fibre, or in wool taken from a piece of

cloth which has been put through a finishing process that has stripped the scales off to a greater or smaller extent; and, even in some of the finest wools, the scales are occasionally very imperfectly developed near the tips. In the case of body hairs the scales are far smaller, and in no instance does a single scale surround the entire hair (Fig. 10, *c*).

On the structure of these scales depends one of the most valuable properties of wool, viz. the felting or shrinking power. This is due to the circumstance that, when the wool is soaked in certain solutions (*e.g.* soap), and subjected to pressure and friction, the individual scales engage one in another so that they can no longer be separated without breaking. On this behaviour is based the operation of fulling or milling woollen cloth. This explanation of felting property is in perfect harmony with the fact that body hairs, and, indeed, all other hairs with less fully developed scales, are harder to full than wool.

Two other properties of wool also depend on the nature and arrangement of the scales, namely, the lustre of the fibre and the degree of facility with which it will absorb water and dye-stuffs. Wool, with scales that either lie down flat or project only very slightly, always has more lustre than that wherein the converse conditions prevail. Some common grades of wool have very hard scales, which tightly encompass the hair and greatly retard the penetration of water and dye; such wools must therefore be well wetted before dyeing.

The second or cortical layer of the wool fibre consists of small spindle-shaped cells which give the wool its strength. These cells are visible, when viewed longitudinally under the microscope, as long striations, especially when the wool has passed through the finishing process.

Finally, the third or central layer, the medulla, is of far less importance than the other two, since it is entirely absent in the very best kinds of wool (merino). In fact, the dimensions of this medulla afford an indication of quality, since while the coarse body hairs have a broad medulla, and can thus be distinguished from the fine wool hairs under the microscope, the quality of the true wool hairs varies inversely with the amount of medulla they contain. The presence of this pith is a cause of weakness in the fibre, and therefore it gradually disappears in proportion as the wool is improved.

Microscopical examination plays an important practical part in the case of sheep's wool, since it forms the best means of distinguishing between the different kinds of wool, and also of differentiating between body hairs and true wool, the former being

readily recognised by their well-developed medullary layer and small scales. Tanners' wool that has been removed from the pelt by liming can be detected by the presence of hair-root sacs, which are never found in the shorn fleece. Moreover, the microscope forms the best means of detecting the peculiar malady known as "stocks," and probably due to mouldy growths, which infests wool or woollen cloth that has been stored for some time in warm, badly ventilated rooms whilst in a damp state, especially if this dampness be due to alkaline liquids or contact with decaying wood. The malady is most frequently encountered in woollens dyed



FIG. 11.

with indigo, and generally takes the form of small light-coloured spots distributed over the surface of the goods. The view that the mould eats away the dye is, however, erroneous, and it is really the fibre that is attacked and rendered brittle, the result being that it drops away and leaves a spotty mark. When the corrosion has proceeded sufficiently far, its effects on the fibre are clearly visible to the naked eye; and if a portion be examined under the microscope, a very peculiar and characteristic appearance will be detected (see Fig. 11), viz. that the scales on some parts of the hairs, and especially at the tips, have disappeared, leaving the spindle-shaped cells of the cortical layer protruding like the hairs of a brush, whilst some of them have become detached altogether and can be seen lying upon and between the wool hairs.

In other places they stick out from the side of the wool hairs like so many tufts.

Some skill is, however, required in detecting this characteristic appearance, especially when the malady is only in the incipient stage, since shoddy and other wool substitutes present a similar picture under the microscope, though what is really seen in this case is the broken ends of fibres, and not the separate spindle cells.

The malady in question plays an important and much dreaded part in the woollen industry, since the affected pieces can neither be properly dyed nor milled, and, besides, the goods are weakened.

An equally characteristic appearance is exhibited under the microscope by wool corroded by alkalis, the wool being curled up

in horseshoe form when the reaction has been very strong (see Fig. 12), or merely turned round in the form of a crosier at the

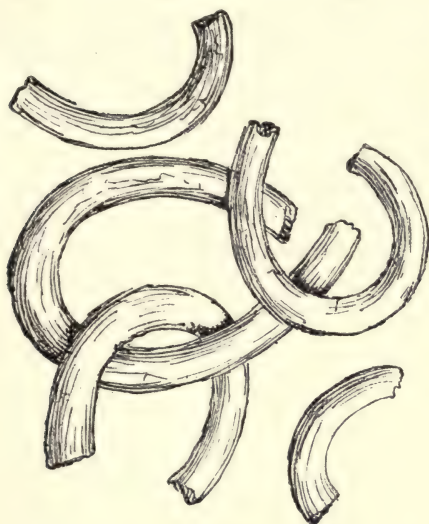


FIG. 12.

ends when a less powerful reaction has occurred. A similar corrosion of the fibre is often met with after the carbonising process, and, in the subsequent dyeing, gives rise to what is known as "soda spotting."

Finally, it is also occasionally possible to detect acid corrosion in wool by the aid of the microscope, the fibre being in such case more than usually striated, and in some places, the ends particularly, looks as though hacked to pieces. Unfortunately, the microscopic picture furnished

by such wool is not very characteristic, and for this reason the formation of "acid spotting" due to carbonisation cannot always be detected by the microscope test alone, although when the wool has been strongly corroded by acid the microscopic picture is characteristic enough (Fig. 13).



FIG. 13.

Physical Properties.—Wool is a very hygroscopic substance, and can absorb a large proportion of water without becoming appreciably wet. This property is utilised by certain fraudulent dealers, inasmuch as they leave the wool in a damp place, or else sprinkle it with water, in order to increase the weight. For this reason it has become necessary to condition all parcels of wool. The toughest wool generally contains the largest percentage of water; in the case of unwashed wool, the amount of moisture is inversely proportional

to the fat content. Although so hygroscopic, wool absorbs moisture

in large quantities far less rapidly than the other textile fibres, and therefore requires to be well wetted before dyeing, one to two hours' boiling in water being necessary.

In warm water wool fibre swells up, becomes soft, and, like all horny substances, plastic—*i.e.* retains the shape into which it has been moulded. Several important operations in the finishing process for woollen goods are based on this property of the fibre, as well as on its high elasticity and felting power.

The lustre of wool varies considerably, the straight, smooth wools being mostly superior in this respect to the curly merino wools. Such wools, however, as have a glassy lustre are generally very hard and horny, and are difficult to dye, on which account they must be particularly well wetted.

The colour also varies greatly in the different grades, the best kinds being white, the others yellowish, red, brown, and black. The dark-coloured wools are almost impossible to bleach, and are worked up in their natural shade to dark goods.

Wool greedily absorbs acids, metallic hydroxides, and dye-stuffs, more especially in the warm. This interesting feature will be fully dealt with in treating of mordanting and dyeing.

Chemical Composition.—In the unwashed state wool consists of three parts—fibre, wool fat, and suint or yolk.

The thoroughly cleansed fibre has the same chemical composition as horn and feathers—*viz.* the substance known as keratin, which is classed with the proteids. It consists of carbon, hydrogen, oxygen, nitrogen, and sulphur.

The percentage values obtained for the constituents of keratin by ultimate analysis are worthless, since it is impossible to dry wool thoroughly without decomposition. It is, moreover, almost certain that what we regard as pure wool is not a uniform substance, since if even the purest wool be boiled in water, one or perhaps more organic substances and sulphur pass into solution. The organic matter thus dissolved gives precipitates with silver and lead salts, and is therefore probably of an acid character.

If this boiling be repeated with fresh quantities of water, a point is at length reached when no further extraction occurs.

With regard to the part played by sulphur in the substance of wool, nothing definite is known. A portion of this sulphur can be extracted by solvents, and even, as already stated, by boiling with water, without altering the structure of the wool or its behaviour towards reagents; and it also appears to be in part contained in the soluble matter just referred to. Nevertheless, the whole of the sulphur cannot be extracted without producing structural modifications. These considerations also explain the highly conflicting

analytical reports on the percentage of sulphur in wool, the figures ranging from 0·8 to 3·8 per cent.

The presence of sulphur distinguishes animal wools from all other fibres, and may be employed as a means of differentiation between them, a black coloration being produced when wool is boiled with sodium plumbate.

Wool Fat.—This, the fatty matter found in wool, is an accidental constituent of wool fibre, but cannot be entirely removed without spoiling the softness of the wool.

Its composition is complex, and has been only partially investigated. It consists of cholesterin and isocholesterin, both in a free state and in combination with oleic acid, stearic acid, hyænic acid, etc. Free higher fatty acids, and other still unidentified substances, also appear to be present. Wool fat is therefore not a true fat, since it contains no glycerides.

Suint or Yolk.—Under this name are comprised all the bodies that are eliminated from raw wool in the washing process, though, scientifically speaking, the term “suint” applies only to the fluid secretion of the skin of the sheep. The amount varies in different wools, and it is an accepted axiom that the larger the proportion of suint the better the quality of the wool.

The extracted and dried suint contains 60 per cent. of organic matters and 40 per cent. of mineral substances. It consists chiefly of the potash salts of oleic acid and stearic acid, probably also of other volatile fatty acids; and, in addition, contains potassium chloride and the phosphates, sulphates, and silicates of calcium, potassium, iron, and magnesium, together with nitrogen in the form of ammonia salts and in the organic compounds.

Both wool fat and suint are recovered from the waste waters of wool-washing establishments, and are utilised in various ways. (See Wool-Washing.)

Chemical behaviour of Wool Fibre.—In the pure state wool fibre consists of keratin, which is classed with the proteids and has the character of an amido-acid, *i.e.* is both acid and basic. The presence of amido groups in wool has been proved by diazotisation.

Even when stored in the damp, sheep's wool is less subject to mould than vegetable fibres. On being heated in the dry state, wool undergoes slight decomposition, even at 120–125° C., attended with liberation of ammonia and slight yellowing; when heated to 140–150° C., it also loses part of its sulphur, which is liberated in the form of sulphuretted hydrogen.

The behaviour of wool on combustion and towards water has already been described, and it only remains to state that wool is far more resistant towards water than silk, though unnecessarily

prolonged boiling should be avoided, since this roughens the wool and lowers its tensile strength. It suffers far less when boiled in acidified water, the reason apparently being that pure water behaves like a weak alkali, and therefore dissolves out a (probably acid) constituent of the fibre. When heated with water to 200° C., under pressure, complete decomposition and solution occur.

The effect of alkalis on wool has already been mentioned in part. Ammonia in the cold does not attack wool to any appreciable extent, though some loss of substance occurs even when the ammonia is very dilute and the period of exposure brief.

Ammonium carbonate has but very little effect on wool, and is for this reason the best detergent for this material.

Lime acts less powerfully than the caustic alkalis, but extracts sulphur and renders the wool hard and brittle, besides making it more difficult to full. It is for this reason that tanners' wool is such an inferior material.

By the energetic action of barium hydroxide, a substance known as lanugic acid, possessing the general properties of wool, has been isolated from the fibre.

Wool has a greater power of resisting dilute acids than is exhibited by any of the other textile fibres already mentioned, but suffers more or less corrosion when treated with concentrated acids. Thus, if carbonised wool be left for several weeks without neutralising the residual sulphuric acid from the carbonising process, it will be found to have sustained considerable alteration, evidenced by the abnormal loss in weight experienced on boiling it with water. Such wool also behaves in a peculiar manner when dyed, inasmuch as it will then readily absorb Methylene Green, for example, which is not the case with normal wool. Concentrated acids will dissolve wool completely.

Concentrated nitric acid stains wool yellow, xanthoproteic acid being formed. This property is frequently utilised for producing false yellow selvages in cloth.

Chlorine or hypochlorous acid has a very powerful effect on wool, the latter absorbing up to 33 per cent. of the reagent, and suffering an entire change of character, being stained brown, losing its felting properties, acquiring a hard feel, and in many cases assuming a silky appearance, inasmuch as it scroops when compressed, and exhibits a greater affinity for dye-stuffs.

However, an entirely favourable modification is produced in wool by the moderated action of hypochlorous acid; and practical use is made of this circumstance—for example, in securing better development of the so-called steam dyes in the printing of woollen

piece goods. Latterly this reaction has also been employed in the production of the so-called "silk wool," a product exhibiting the above-mentioned properties of silk, and obtained by treating wool with an acidified solution of bleaching powder. (Full particulars of the method are given in the directions published by the Badische Anilin- und Sodafabrik.)

Finally, it may be mentioned that true wool hair is dissolved by ammoniacal copper oxide in the warm, whereas body hairs, and hairs in general, are destroyed but not dissolved by this reagent.

Goat Wool and Camel Wool.

In morphological and chemical character these textile fibres are closely allied to sheep's wool, and the particulars given with regard to that substance apply to them also.

Mohair is the silky hair of the Angora goat, indigenous to Asia Minor, the climate of which country seems favourable to the growth of long silky hair, since the dogs, cats, and rabbits there found are all covered with hair of this kind. Latterly it has been found possible to acclimatise the Angora goat in Cape Colony also.

On account of its stiffness, mohair is used for making plush, and, by reason of its handsome lustre, it is also employed in fine fabrics, for decorating cloth, and for fancy yarns in place of silk.

Under the microscope, mohair is distinguishable by remarkably broad and regularly distributed striations; the scales are thin and serrated.

Cashmere, or Thibet wool, is the soft down of the Cashmere goat (*Capra hircus laniger*), indigenous to Thibet. It forms the material for the justly renowned Indian shawls, and, on account of its great softness, is also used in the European woollen industry, mainly for producing a nap on winter clothings.

It is worthy of remark that this wool is more difficult to dye than that of the sheep.

Alpaca, Vicuna, and Llama.—These fibres are furnished by camel-goats, of the Auchenia family, inhabiting the mountains of Peru and Chili. They are mostly of a red-brown to black colour, but are of only minor importance to the European textile industry.

It should be noted that the commercial product known as vicuna or vigogne is not obtained from the vicuna, but is a mixture of wool and cotton; further, that an artificial wool, or wool substitute, is met with in commerce under the name of alpaca.

These exotic wools are frequently infested with a micro-organism (*Bacillus anthracis*), which produces the disease known as anthrax (wool-sorter's disease) in man, and engenders a species of typhus in cattle and horses. Consequently the rooms where these wools are sorted should be well ventilated, and the sorters should wear respirators.

Camel Wool.—On account of its strength and softness, camel wool has latterly been largely used for making bedcovers and winter clothings. As it cannot be bleached, it is used either in the natural colour, or dyed dark brown or black.

Cow Hair.—This fibre being cheap, and possessing a certain—though not considerable—amount of felting power, is now somewhat largely used in the manufacture of coarse blankets and bedcovers.

Artificial Wool (Wool Substitutes).

The first experiments on converting woollen rags into fibre suitable for spinning were made in England in 1845, the product being put on the market under the name of shoddy. This industry has increased to a very considerable extent, and, according to an old estimate made by Grothe, about 33 per cent. of the total wool manufactured consists of wool substitutes; in fact, of all the samples of woollens examined by him, only 15 per cent. were free from such admixture. At the present time, the quantity of wool substitutes manufactured and used is far greater. Shoddy factories now exist in nearly every country in Europe, and it is therefore natural that all cheap woollen goods should contain wool substitutes; in fact, many low-priced cloths consist of 70 per cent., and more, of such materials. On the other hand, they can only be used for the under wefts of worsted fabrics.

There are several varieties of wool substitutes, the value of which stands in direct relation to the quality of the waste from which they are produced. The chief members of the series are the following:—

Shoddy.—This is made of waste or rags from pure unmilled woollens, flannels, bedcovers, curtains, and also from knitted and twisted goods. The resulting fibres are about an inch long, and are sorted according to colour and fineness, vegetable fibres being eliminated by carbonising.

Mungo is obtained from milled woollen rags, and being of much shorter staple than shoddy ($\frac{1}{4}$ – $\frac{3}{4}$ inch) is therefore of less value than the latter.

Alpaca, or extract wool, is a long staple substitute from fine unmilled cloth waste, and generally contains a good deal of

vegetable fibres. The crux of the process, therefore, resides in the operation of carbonising.

Thibet Wool substitute is recovered from light cloth waste.

Cosmos Fibre.—This contains no sheep's wool at all, being made of waste from flax, jute, and hemp fabrics; it also frequently contains fragments of hopbine, nettle fibre, etc. Belgium and North America are the sole centres of production.

In addition to the foregoing adjuncts, use is made in the woollen industry of the short fibre obtained as a waste product in the shearing or cropping of cloth. This material is milled in, to the extent of about 20 per cent., on the under side of cloth, the operation being known as "impregnating." It can be detected under the microscope by the shortness of the fibres and by their truncated ends.

Testing Wool Substitutes.—In most cases all that is requisite is to determine the amount of cotton present; but in a complete analysis the percentage of water and fat (the latter being usually added to facilitate spinning) must also be determined, and a qualitative test made for silk.

Water is ascertained by drying a 5–10 grm. sample at a little over 100° C.

The fat is estimated by extracting a dried sample with petroleum ether.

The percentage of cotton is found by digesting a fat-free sample—of at least 10 grms.—for a quarter of an hour at boiling temperature in 8° B. caustic soda. This dissolves out the wool, leaving the cotton behind for weighing after filtration through a linen cloth, washing out all the alkali with boiling water, and drying.

Silk, which is occasionally present, need only be tested for qualitatively. This should never be omitted, since, unlike cotton, silk is not removed by carbonising, but remains behind in the wool, and will, by reason of its different affinity for dye-stuffs, cause irregularities in dyeing. The test is performed as follows:—A sample of the substance is dyed with logwood, which stains only the wool, leaving the cotton and silk almost unaffected and easily recognised by their lighter shade. A sample is then examined for silk under the microscope.

Examining Fabrics for the Presence of Wool Substitutes.—

With this object, a few fibres are cut from the fabric by the aid of a sharp knife and placed under the microscope, whereupon the wool substitutes will be recognisable by their shape and colour. That the form of these fibres will be different from ordinary wool can be readily understood when it is remembered that, in addition to the tearing process they have to undergo (in the case of shoddy and

mungo, at least), the wool substitutes have been through the finishing process twice over. Hence these fibres exhibit ragged ends, owing to the loss of the scales, and they are frequently also partly broken in the middle. As, however, wool hairs attacked by mould also exhibit a similar appearance, care is necessary to prevent confusion.

Variety of colour is the best indication of the presence of artificial wool, since, although the different colours are sorted out in the making, this cannot be done with perfect accuracy, and

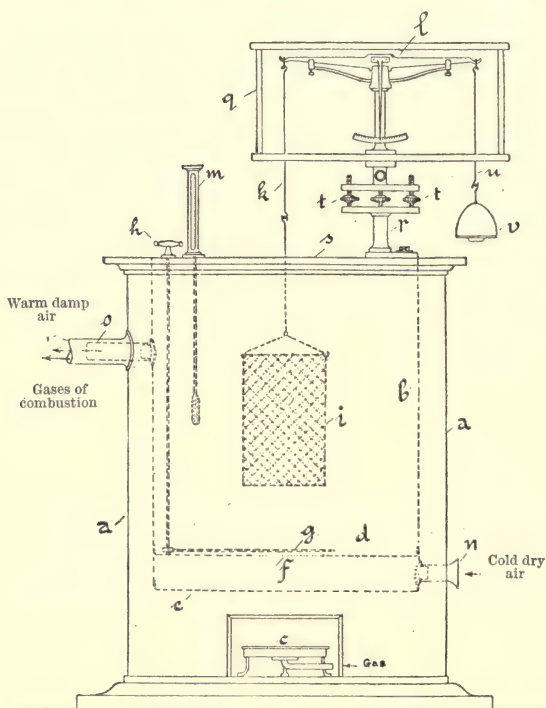


FIG. 14.

therefore the fibres of wool substitutes are usually many-coloured, unless, which rarely happens, the material is all white. Thus, in examining a red cloth, for example, if it be found to contain blue and green fibres as well, the presence of wool substitutes may be justifiably assumed. In the case of very dark coloured materials the colour should be first partly removed by boiling with a weak alkali or dilute acid before making the examination.

Of course, in the case of coloured mixture fabrics, hairs of more than one colour (usually two or three) may be expected. To

prevent deception it is also advisable to examine the colour of the selvedge; blue cloths, for instance, generally have a yellow selvedge, and it may happen that a few hairs—almost invisible to the naked eye—from this selvedge will come off on to the cloth, which will then seem to contain yellow fibres in the microscope sample. In any event, the examination should not be confined to a single sample.

Sometimes the presence of wool substitutes can be indirectly determined by a qualitative examination of the ash left by the material on combustion. Thus, if the sample have been dyed with a Ponceau dye, and chrome be found in the ash, the presence of artificial wool is indicated, since these dyes are never fixed with chrome salts, and therefore the latter must have been introduced in a wool substitute.

Conditioning.—As already stated, silk, being an expensive and also hygroscopic substance, has to have its actual weight determined when sold. This operation is performed in official institutions, known as “conditioning houses,” the *modus operandi* being as follows:—

The parcel of silk is first weighed, after which samples are drawn, to the extent of about 1500 grms., from different parts of the whole. The sample is divided into three parts, two of them being weighed to $\frac{1}{2}$ gm. and then placed in the apparatus shown in Fig. 14, where they are dried, until of constant weight, by a current of air heated to 110° C. If the resulting weights agree to within $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., the average is taken, but when a greater difference exists the third part of the sample is dried in the same way, and the mean of the three determinations is adopted. The standard commercial weight is found by adding 11 per cent. to the dry weight. In the case of mixed yarns of silk and wool the standard of permissible moisture is 16 per cent. of the dry weight of the material.

Conditioning houses of this kind exist in London, Paris, Lyons, Vienna, Crefeld, Zurich, Basle, Turin, Milan, Verviers, etc.

Latterly the custom has arisen of conditioning both wool and cotton as well as silk, the work being done in just the same manner. The officially permitted percentages of moisture are as follow:—

For worsted and worsted yarn	18 $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent.
For unwashed wool, woollen waste, combings, and carded yarn	17 ”
For cotton and cotton yarns	8 $\frac{1}{2}$ ”

CHAPTER II

WASHING, BLEACHING, AND CARBONISING

Washing and Bleaching

BROADLY considered, any operation performed with the object of cleansing a textile fibre at any stage of manufacture or improvement may be included in this category; but, in their more restricted sense, washing and bleaching are terms confined to the cleansing of the textile fibres in their crude state in order to prepare them for the subsequent operations of dyeing, dressing, etc. Thus, in speaking of wool-washing, the first process of purification to which the wool is subjected before spinning is meant, and not the rinsing of dyed wool, for example.

Corresponding operations are not always described by the same names in different branches of the textile industry; and, conversely, the same term is differently applied. Thus the term "cotton bleaching" comprises the entire set of operations employed to free the cellulose from all natural and other impurities, whereas, in the case of silk and wool, the term "bleaching" implies only the more restricted sense of the word, being confined to the operations effecting the actual decoloration of the fibre. Again, the first cleansing process applied to raw silk is not called "washing," as in the case of wool, but is termed "scouring," or "removing the bast."

The means or reagents employed for cleansing the fibres also differ considerably, according to the nature of the fibres in question, the stage of manufacture, and the nature of the impurities to be removed. For instance, one would not attempt to cleanse animal fibres with caustic alkalis, and raw fibre must be cleansed in a different manner to that employed for the same fibre when dyed. Thus, raw silk is freed from sericin by washing with soap and soda, whereas dyed silk is merely rinsed with water alone, if at all.

Raw wool is also washed with soap and soda; the same materials are likewise used, though in a different way, to free the yarn from the oil applied in the spinning process, whilst the dyed pieces are merely rinsed with water or cleansed with soap or fuller's earth. Raw cotton is freed from natural impurities by

energetic treatment with caustic alkalis, soda, alkaline earths, etc., sometimes also with acids to remove size. When dyed, however, it is mostly washed with water alone, whilst printed goods are treated with soap, malt, etc.

The present chapter deals solely with the purification of the raw fibres in their undyed state, the various washings subsequent to dyeing and printing being postponed to a more suitable part of the book.

The reagents employed may be divided into two classes—detergents and bleaching agents—the former comprising water, soda lye, ammonia, sodium carbonate, ammonium carbonate, quicklime, magnesia, hydrochloric acid, sulphuric acid, soap, resin lyes, benzine, oil of turpentine, etc.

The author takes it for granted that the reader is acquainted with the properties and examination of these materials, and will therefore confine himself to dealing with water, and that, too, merely from a textile point of view.

Water plays an important part, not only in washing and bleaching, but also in the operations of dyeing and printing fabrics. Of the various substances that may be present in water, the following alone are of interest to us, viz.—

1. Solid matters in suspension;
2. Salts of lime and magnesia, which produce “hardness”;
3. Other less common impurities, such as iron, humus acids, alkali carbonates, and sulphuretted hydrogen.

Turbid water containing matters in suspension must be clarified before use, by filtration or settling. Another method of clarifying impure water is to boil it with bran and skim off the frothy scum.

From the washer's and dyer's point of view, the most important defect in water is hardness, since hard water is unsuitable for either washing or dyeing. If such water be used for, say, washing textile fibres, the lime and magnesia present will be thrown down as insoluble soaps of these metals, and thus, not only is there a considerable waste of soap, but the precipitated compounds adhere to the fibre and are liable to cause spotting. Therefore, to render hard water fit for use, it must first be treated with soda, to throw down a large portion of the alkaline earths. A more economical plan, however, especially when the water is to be used for scouring silk, is to first throw down the bicarbonates of lime and magnesia by simple boiling, and then add the soda. In this manner a saving of soda is effected and the water is more effectually softened than by the first-named method.

For dyeing, only the so-called temporary hardness of water produced by the bicarbonates of lime and magnesia is injurious,

except where the dyeing of silk in a bast soap bath is in question, in which event the soap may also precipitate the lime and magnesia compounds, producing permanent hardness.

Temporary hardness may cause the precipitation of basic dye-stuffs and mordant dyes, the colour base being thrown down in the first case, and the lime or magnesia salt of the dye-stuff in the other; *i.e.* with basic dyes the alkaline earth carbonates act by the alkaline reaction they impart to the dye bath, and in the other case by the formation of insoluble salts. In either event the use of hard water is attended with a loss of dye; this is specially noticeable in the case of dyeing with logwood and various alizarine dyes.

Hardness in the water does not matter when acid dyes are used, or in mordanting wool, since in these cases acid baths are used; only when mordanting with cream of tartar does the water require to be corrected beforehand, since otherwise a portion of the tartar would be precipitated as calcium tartrate and lost. No harm is caused by hard water in mordanting cotton and silk; in fact, hard water is preferable to soft for fixing the mordant on silk.

In order to fit hard water for dyeing, it is "corrected" by neutralising the contained carbonates with an acid, the amount required being ascertained by titrating a small sample—about 2 litres—in a porcelain basin, with decinormal hydrochloric acid, using methyl orange as indicator. In practice, the acids used are acetic acid or sulphuric acid; oxalic acid cannot be recommended, since, though it precipitates all the salts of lime and magnesia in an almost complete manner, the pulverulent oxalates are liable to be deposited on the fibre, and are then difficult to wash off.

It should be an invariable rule to use none but corrected water for dyeing, though when an acid dye bath is employed the correction of the water is effected at the same time as the acidification of the bath.

When the water has been corrected no precipitation of the dye-stuff will ensue from the alkaline earths, these being now in the state of acetates or sulphates, of a more strongly acid character than the mordant dye-stuffs themselves.

Water containing iron or sulphuretted hydrogen cannot be used for dyeing except under special circumstances; and ferruginous water is altogether unsuitable for bleaching. Water of this kind has a deadening effect on many bright colours, such as alizarine red, cochineal scarlet, etc.

Water containing sulphuretted hydrogen may exert an injurious

influence when used in mordanting with metallic oxides which give insoluble coloured sulphides.

Water exhibiting an acid or alkaline reaction, from the presence of humus acids or alkaline carbonates respectively, can be fitted for use by careful neutralisation.

Purifying Waste Water from Dyeing and Bleaching Works.

—This is too wide a subject to be exhaustively dealt with here, though a brief mention cannot be omitted. The best method to adopt in dyeworks is to run all the various bath liquors into a large collecting tank. Here the different mordants and dyes precipitate each other, the reaction being completed by an addition of lime. Ferrous sulphate may also be used for the same purpose in virtue of its precipitating and reducing action.

For decolorising purposes, an addition of aluminium hypochlorite—a clarified mixture of alum and bleaching powder—is advisable, any excess of this reagent being rendered innocuous by adding ferrous sulphate.

Bleaching Agents.

By the term bleaching we understand destruction of colour, in the present case the natural yellow-brown colour of the textile fibres in their crude state.

The requirements exacted of bleaching agents in practice are threefold—(1) they must really bleach, *i.e.* convert the yellow colour of the crude fibre into a pure white; (2) they must not corrode the fibre; and (3) they must be cheap.

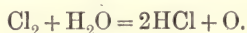
Only two chief bleaching agents are known, and these at the same time may serve to represent the two groups into which these agents are divided: the first is oxygen, the other sulphurous acid. In the former case the bleaching effect is the result of a destruction of the colouring matter by oxidation; but in the second group the process cannot be expressed by a single word, and, moreover, has not yet been fully elucidated. However, to distinguish these bleaching agents from the others, they may be termed reducing agents.

Finally, there are various other substances which impart a bluish white tinge to textile fibres; these, however, are not bleaching agents but colorants, their action being to mask the natural yellow colour of the fibre. Their description will therefore be postponed.

(a) **The Oxidising Bleaching Agents.**—This class includes oxygen itself, ozone, chlorine, bromine, hypochlorites, peroxides, chromic acid in the form of potassium bichromate, permanganic acid

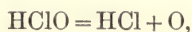
as potassium permanganate, and potassium ferricyanide. Whichever of these substances be employed, their action is invariably attributable to nascent oxygen.

Chlorine acts only in the presence of water, perfectly dry chlorine having no bleaching action. The reaction is based on the decomposition of water and liberation of oxygen—



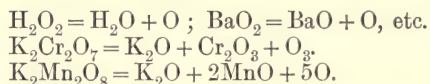
Bromine acts in a similar manner.

The hypochlorites act by the decomposition of the liberated hypochlorous acid into hydrochloric acid and oxygen—



whence it follows that the activity of these salts can be increased by an acid setting the hypochlorous acid at liberty.

The peroxides, and also potassium bichromate and potassium permanganate, when brought into contact with readily oxidisable bodies, undergo decomposition and liberate oxygen, which then acts as a bleach—



All these bleaching agents act more energetically than oxygen itself, because the oxygen they liberate is in the nascent state. In all cases the presence of water or moisture is indispensable for the performance of the bleaching reaction, perfectly dry oxygen having no oxidising power.

Atmospheric Oxygen and Ozone.—The oxygen of the air is the oldest bleaching agent known, and is the active ingredient in the process of grass bleaching, which was formerly employed for cotton and linen, but is now almost entirely confined to the latter class of goods. Whether in this process the oxygen acts partly in the condition of ozone has not been definitely ascertained.

The decolorising or discharging of dyed colours is also nothing else than a process of oxygen bleaching.

In recent patented processes by Siemens and Halske, atmospheric oxygen is ozonised by an electric current, and in this form is used for bleaching fibres, principally linen. The operation is performed in a closed illuminated glass chamber, and is claimed to occupy only one-third the time consumed in the ordinary grass bleach.

Some oils possess the property of absorbing atmospheric oxygen and, under the influence of light, converting it into ozone. Oil of turpentine is one of these, and, in addition, exercises a cleansing effect on textiles, especially in presence of water and an alkali; in fact, a mixture of ozonised turpentine and alkali has been recom-

mended as a bleaching agent by Depierre and Georgievics. The new product "ozonin" is prepared by allowing light to act for three days or so on a mixture of resin, turpentine, alkali, and hydrogen peroxide. It is claimed to bleach well even when diluted to 1 part per mil.

Chlorine was formerly used for bleaching cotton, but the method never attained any practical importance. Latterly, this reagent has again been advocated by several, Breinl and Karrer having recommended it for bleaching cotton on the bobbin, and Leykham of Josefthal for jute. The Brin's Oxygen Company employs a mixture of chlorine and oxygen for bleaching. Finally, it may be mentioned that proposals have been made to intensify the bleaching action of chlorine by the influence of the electric current as applied to oxygen by the Siemens and Halske method.

Bromine has been recommended for bleaching Tussah silk, the excess of reagent being afterwards removed by the aid of a sulphite, which, in turn, is eliminated by an acid bath.

Bleaching powder, or "chloride of lime," is one of the oldest and most important of the bleaching agents. When dissolved in water, it has the normal composition of a hypochlorite, corresponding to the formula $\text{Ca}(\text{ClO})_2$. In the solid state it is credited with the formula $\text{Ca} \begin{smallmatrix} \text{OCl} \\ \text{Cl} \end{smallmatrix}$.

Bleaching powder is the main bleaching agent used for all the vegetable textile fibres except jute; but, like chlorine or other hypochlorites, is unsuitable for animal fibres. It must be stored in well-closed vessels, in a cool place, since otherwise it undergoes rapid decomposition.

Particular care is necessary in dissolving this reagent in water, it being essential to avoid heat, or decomposition will ensue. The solution should be perfectly clear and free from particles in suspension, since these would be deposited on the fibre to be bleached and produce "super oxidation," *i.e.* not only destroy the colouring matter of the fibre, but convert the cellulose into oxycellulose. As the latter has a greater affinity than the former for dye-stuffs, the result would be to form dark spots impossible to eliminate. In cotton-printing these oxycellulose spots turn brown when steamed, and the fibre exhibits more or less corrosion. If bleaching powder be treated with too much water at first it forms lumps that cannot be afterwards reduced. Consequently the powder, after being passed through a crushing mill, is first carefully mixed to a paste with a small quantity of water, and then treated with enough water to form the solution. It is advisable to use two stone tanks for this operation, the solution being prepared in the one and

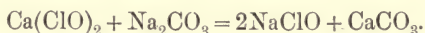
poured, when clear, into the second, where it is reduced to the proper strength. The common practice of recording the strength of bleaching powder solutions in degrees of the Beaumé hydrometer is irrational, since whilst the useless substances present, such as calcium hydroxide, calcium chloride, etc., increase the density of the solution, the active free chlorine has the contrary effect. Hence the density is no criterion at all of the real strength of the solution. In fact, this can only be ascertained by chemical means, *e.g.* titration with potassium iodide, sodium hyposulphite, and starch paste. The proper strength of solution to use for bleaching depends mainly on the nature of the fibres under treatment, their capacity for resisting the action of bleaching powder varying. Cotton is the least susceptible of all; nevertheless care is required even in this case. The "chemicking," as the bleaching with chloride of lime is called, is the most risky operation of the whole bleaching process, because here the corrosion of the fibre is most likely to occur. In practice the strength of solution used varies from 0.2° to $2\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ B.

When a fibrous material impregnated with dissolved bleaching powder is exposed to the air the bleaching effect is increased in comparison with the action produced when the same is merely left immersed in the liquid, the reason for this being that the hypochlorous acid is liberated by the carbon dioxide in the air. Fabrics impregnated with such a solution must not be exposed to direct sunlight, or the oxidising action of the bleach will be so strong as to corrode the fibre and reduce its strength.

Moreover, it must be remembered that simple washing with water is insufficient to entirely remove the bleaching powder solution from the fibre, and consequently the material must be afterwards soured in an acid bath, or, in the case of household linens, treated with an "antichlor," since otherwise the fibre will be more or less weakened in course of time.

Finally, bleaching powder can be used in the manufacture of other hypochlorites; aluminium hypochlorite, for example, being prepared by treating bleaching powder solution with alum.

Sodium Hypochlorite.—This compound is prepared for bleaching purposes by acting on bleaching powder with sodium carbonate—



This salt is gentler in its action than the lime compound, probably because the latter—owing to the less ready solubility of calcium carbonate—is more easily decomposed by atmospheric carbon dioxide, and the liberated hypochlorous acid comes into action more energetically than in the case of sodium hypochlorite. For this reason no weakening of the fibre occurs in bleaching with

the sodium salt, though almost inevitable when bleaching powder is used. Another advantage of the former is that the acid bath, after bleaching, is dispensed with, the reagent being easily removed by a simple rinsing in water.

Again, the bleaching process goes on better by simple immersion in the sodium hypochlorite solution than in the usual method practised when bleaching powder is used. Not only does sodium hypochlorite form the most important bleaching agent for jute, but its use for cottons has grown more and more in favour of late—an extension that may be expected to continue to the entire suppression of bleaching powder, owing to the ease with which the sodium salt can be prepared by electrolytic methods, the product being cheaper (provided motive power be available at a reasonable cost) and always obtainable of constant strength.

Of the various methods for preparing “electrolytic chlorine,” only the process of Dr. Kellner will be described here. This inventor produces a cheap bleach by the aid of his special brush electrodes, which consist of a number of ebonite plates, fitted in a special manner with brush-like wires of platinum, which at the two end plates are connected to two common contacts leading to the pole of a dynamo. The apparatus is enclosed in a prismatic box of ebonite, the lower part of which is shaped like a hopper and is fitted with the inlets for admitting the sodium chloride to be decomposed. The solution of the latter ascends between the several plates, forming the electrodes, and is split up into sodium and chlorine, the former acting on the water, and forming sodium hydroxide (caustic soda), with liberation of hydrogen, and then combining with the free chlorine to form sodium hypochlorite. There also occur certain subsidiary reactions, of both an oxidising and a reducing character, chiefly concerned with the formation of a chlorate and the re-decomposition of hypochlorite to chloride.

In consequence of the chemical reaction produced, the solution issuing from the lateral outlets of the apparatus, and already containing active chlorine, has sustained an increase of temperature, and must, in order to prevent decomposition, be passed through a cooling coil to restore it to the original temperature, whereupon it is returned to the electrolyser. This process is repeated until the solution contains 1 per cent. of active chlorine, at which stage it is ready for use in bleaching.

Ammonium hypochlorite has been proposed for bleaching Tussah silk; and aluminium hypochlorite and magnesium hypochlorite have also been recommended as bleaching agents.

Hydrogen peroxide is the best bleaching agent, and can be recommended for all kinds of fibre, as well as for removing stains,

and for bleaching the hair. It possesses the great advantage over all its competitors, that it does not attack the fibre in any way; but it is too expensive for general use. Up to the present its chief application has been in the bleaching of wool, and here it exhibits the decided advantage of producing permanent decoloration, which was hitherto unattainable by the use of sulphur. Nevertheless, hydrogen peroxide alone is incapable of furnishing a perfectly pure white.

Hydrogen peroxide is met with in commerce as an aqueous solution, containing 1.5 per cent. of active oxygen, the solution being of 12 per cent. (vol.) strength. It is rather unstable, and must therefore be stored in the dark; an addition of glycerine, however, is said to increase its stability. The strength of the solution is ascertained by titration with potassium permanganate, or with potassium iodide and sodium hypochlorite. It should be as pure as possible, since impurities like alumina, baryta, magnesia, etc., may exert a catalytic decomposing action. For this reason it cannot be stored in metallic vessels.

Alkaline solutions of this reagent are particularly unstable, and consequently these alone are employed in bleaching, the oxidising action being otherwise too slow. The *modus operandi* is as follows:—The commercial solution of peroxide is diluted with two to ten volumes of water, and, before use, receives an addition of 20 grms. of ammonia per litre (of peroxide). The strength depends on the nature of the material under treatment, the concentration being the greater in proportion as the latter is the more difficult to bleach. According to Prudhomme and Koechlin, an addition of magnesia, instead of ammonia, to the bleaching bath, is very favourable, because in such case heat may be applied owing to the formation of magnesium peroxide, which is difficult to decompose. The material to be bleached is either left in the liquid for about ten hours, or is merely impregnated therewith, the excess being wrung out, and the stuff left exposed to the air for some time. This treatment is repeated as often as necessary.

The following method has of late been largely used for bleaching woollens, especially for mousselines that are to be afterwards printed:—The suitably cleaned goods are entered, full width, in a bath of hydrogen peroxide (diluted with two to ten parts of water, and containing an addition of ammonia), after leaving which it is rolled on a wooden roller and left for twenty-four hours, covered up with damp nettles. It is next washed, passed through a bath of 35° B. (diluted with two to ten times its volume of water, according to requirements, as determined by experiment for each class of material), then rolled up and left as long as before. On

unrolling the fabric, it is dried, passed through a weak acid bath (1° B. hydrochloric acid), and finally washed. This method furnishes an excellent white.

Attention must once more be drawn to the fact that solutions of hydrogen peroxide undergo decomposition when brought into contact with metallic vessels, and that such must therefore be avoided when this bleaching agent is used. If the goods are to be drained in the hydro-extractor, that vessel must therefore be lined with some material to prevent contact and the resultant spotting.

Some years ago H. Koechlin devised a process for bleaching cotton with hydrogen peroxide.

Sodium Peroxide.—This, the newest bleaching agent, is manufactured by the Aluminium Company, of London, and is prepared by passing air—freed from carbon dioxide—at a temperature of 300° C. over metallic sodium contained in aluminium vessels.

The commercial product contains 20 per cent. of active oxygen, and is only recommended for bleaching animal fibres. Some precaution is necessary in its application, since it hisses and disengages considerable heat when dissolved in water; and if brought suddenly into contact with a large quantity of that liquid is liable to produce an explosion.

The best method of procedure is as follows:—The sodium peroxide is added by degrees, and with constant stirring, to the requisite quantity of water, and is then treated with sufficient sulphuric acid to neutralise the bath, which condition may be ascertained by the aid of litmus paper. This neutralisation is necessary to prevent corrosion of the animal fibre by the strongly alkaline sodium peroxide. Finally, the warmed bath receives an addition of 1 to 2 lb. of a 45° B. solution of sodium silicate to each pound of peroxide.

The bath temperature and the duration of bleaching depend on the material. Silk should be bleached at 85–100° C.; wool at 50–60° C., in one and a half to three hours, or even longer. The concentration of the bath liquor must be ascertained by experiment; though, for wool and silk, an average of 10 to 15 per cent. of peroxide, calculated on the weight of the material, may be used; and for Tussah silk, 20 to 30 per cent.

Barium peroxide serves for bleaching Tussah silk, and was also recommended by Mullerus for bleaching cotton. In using this substance, however, the fact that it contains barium hydroxide—a strong alkali capable of corroding animal fibres—must not be forgotten; and it should therefore be washed with water before use. The commercial product contains 8 per cent. of active oxygen.

Potassium Permanganate.—This substance is a very powerful oxidising agent, and is frequently used for this purpose in the laboratory. It must be kept in closed vessels, away from the light, and its solutions are readily decomposed.

Bleachers make use of this salt for treating wool, jute, straw, leather, etc., the mode of application being as follows:—The material to be bleached is first treated with a dilute solution of lukewarm permanganate, until the colour turns to brown (formation of potassium manganate). In bleaching animal fibres this solution receives an addition of magnesium sulphate, which, by forming magnesium hydroxide (insoluble) and potassium sulphate, prevents the corrosion of the fibre otherwise resulting from the formation of caustic potash. To remove the brown coloration the material is next treated with a cold dilute solution of bisulphite, or a similar solution of sulphurous acid and borax (prepared by saturating dissolved borax with sulphur dioxide), and finally washing in slightly acid water, followed by pure water.

Owing to its cheapness this method is largely used for woollens, but far less frequently than the sulphur process described below. The permanganate method is very serviceable where stained woollen goods are to be treated with a view to render them fit for sale, if only as inferior goods. It is also useful in bleaching jute, and is actually employed for that purpose.

Potassium Bichromate, in conjunction with sulphuric acid, has a very powerful oxidising effect, and is used for bleaching oils, straw, etc., though not for textile fibres. It has been recommended for jute, but is unsuitable, as it attacks the fibre.

Owing to its property of destroying the colour of indigo, it is used as a discharge in blue printing (*q.v.*).

Potassium Ferricyanide has been proposed by Kassner as a bleach for textiles, and, as a matter of fact, its bleaching action is very powerful in alkaline solutions, potassium ferrocyanide being formed. Nevertheless, the only use made of this property at present is in discharging indigo.

(*b*) **The Reducing Bleaching Agents.**—This class comprises free sulphurous acid, bisulphite, and hyposulphurous acid.

The bleaching action of these substances is not yet fully elucidated, but is assumed to consist in a reduction of the pigmentary matter to its leuco compound, and in the combination of this latter to form a colourless substance. This hypothesis is apparently favoured by the fact that animal substances bleached with sulphurous acid have a tendency to revert to a yellow shade, especially after being treated with alkalis, thus showing that the colour was not really destroyed in the first place, but converted into a colour-

less compound, which in time has become decomposed and allowed the original colour to reappear.

This phenomenon is most clearly shown in the case of goods that have been bleached with free sulphurous acid. In addition to animal fibres, jute is often bleached by this class of reagent.

Sulphurous Acid is used in three forms—as a gas, an aqueous solution, and as liquid sulphurous acid. The gaseous form is the one most in use, whilst the aqueous solution is the least adapted for bleaching, being always contaminated with sulphuric acid; the liquid (condensed) form is almost entirely free from this impurity, and has been successfully employed in bleaching.

Wool and silk are generally bleached with gaseous sulphurous acid in so-called “sulphur chambers,” which are spacious brickwork chambers, fitted with peep-holes for inspecting the goods, the latter being hung on supports inside. The sulphur is placed in iron pots, or in sunken brick pans, which can be fed from the outside. To begin bleaching, the sulphur is ignited, the doors, etc., are closed, and the goods left exposed to the sulphurous fumes.

The quantity of sulphur used must bear a certain proportion to the size of the chamber, in order that a sufficient supply of oxygen for the combustion of the sulphur may be available. The volume of oxygen at disposal for this purpose can be readily calculated from the cubical capacity of the chamber, and a considerable margin in excess of the actual requirements must be allowed for in practice. Should the oxygen be insufficient for complete combustion, the sulphur ceases to burn, and sublimation readily ensues, with the result that the goods get stained with yellow patches that cannot be afterwards eliminated. To prevent this evil the wooden grid over the sulphur pans should be covered with lead and felt.

The average consumption of sulphur required to bleach woollens is 6 to 8 per cent., or for silk 5 per cent., of the weight of material treated. The operation generally takes six to eight hours, but must be repeated three or four times, according to requirements.

To prevent condensation and the consequent spotting of the goods by droppings, a number of heating-plates or steam-pipes are arranged under the ceiling of the chamber, and a chimney with a good draught is provided for carrying off the sulphur fumes after the bleaching is finished.

The sulphur chamber should be entirely free from iron fittings, since the sulphur trioxide invariably produced when sulphur is burned unites with the moisture present, thus forming sulphuric acid, which would rust the iron.

Like all other bleaching agents, sulphurous acid requires the

presence of water in order that the reaction may occur at all; consequently the goods must be introduced in a damp state into the chamber.

Light goods, especially those for printing, are bleached by the continuous process, the apparatus used being of the same type as the first steamer employed in calico-printing. In large works two sets of apparatus are mounted side by side; the goods are entered damp and are carried onward over rollers fitted with hardened lead pins. The passage through the chamber occupies ten minutes; and light goods are put through twice, heavy articles three times.

In addition to the more serious defect of the sulphur bleaching process, viz. yellowing, it is also attended with the following disadvantages:—The sulphuric acid, always formed, retards the bleaching action of the sulphurous acid, and may also be a source of danger to cotton in mixed fabrics; and the process makes the wool harsh, though this can be remedied by a treatment with warm soap and water afterwards. Nevertheless, owing to its cheapness and the beautiful white it produces, the sulphur method is still the one most largely used in bleaching animal fibres.

Sodium Bisulphite (NaHSO_3) is more generally used for bleaching on a small scale. There are two methods of procedure—either the goods are immersed in a solution of the bisulphite and hydrochloric acid, or else they are treated with the bisulphite first and the acid after. The first is the one most practised, and, as a matter of fact, is equivalent to bleaching with an aqueous solution of sulphurous acid. The goods are left to soak for several hours in a weak solution of bisulphite, containing a corresponding quantity of hydrochloric acid, and are then washed, the process being repeated if necessary. When the bisulphite and acid are used separately, the goods are steeped for some time, *e.g.* overnight, in a fairly strong (about 20°B.) solution of bisulphite, after which they are passed through very dilute hydrochloric acid, and are finally washed with water.

Hyposulphurous Acid.—This compound, which was first recommended for bleaching by Kallab, can be used in the same way as bisulphite, except that acetic acid replaces hydrochloric acid in acidifying the bath.

In this case the goods may be blued at the same time as they are bleached, for which purpose they are immersed in water containing indigo in suspension, and are then transferred to the bleaching bath. After remaining in the latter for several hours, they are exposed to the air for a short time, and then washed with a weak solution of soda, followed with pure water.

Further particulars on the production of the hyposulphites will be given in the section on indigo-dyeing.

Cotton-Bleaching.

In the bleaching of cotton goods, the first question arising is the class of impurities present, and to what extent these are to be eradicated. In addition to the natural impurities, those artificially introduced—in the dressing process, for example—have also to be considered. A piece of cotton fabric coming direct from the loom will always be cleaner and differently bleached than one that has been used as a backing in calico-printing, and therefore contains mordants, dye-stuffs, etc., besides the natural impurities of the fibre. Again, goods that are to be dyed in dark shades will require different treatment to those intended for pink, light blue, or white.

Finally, there arises the question whether the bleached material shall merely *appear* to be clean and white, or shall really be so. In the former event, the actual bleaching process may be dispensed with, the suitably prepared goods being blued, to mask the yellow colour of the raw cotton and turn the same into a fine, slightly bluish white. On the other hand, cottons to be afterwards printed must be bleached and cleaned in the most thorough manner possible, any residual impurities preventing the production of a first-class printed article.

Another point that must be borne in mind in carrying out the various manipulations the goods have to undergo is the nature of the fabrics themselves. For example, curtains, lace goods, and similar light fabrics must not be subjected to any tension or rigid pressure in the machines, and for this reason they must be handled tenderly, boiled as little as possible, washed loose, drained by squeezing between rubber rollers in the wringer, and so on. This also applies to raised goods, in which materials the lay of the nap has likewise to be considered, *i.e.* the goods must always pass through the machines in one direction, that of the pile, and never the other way about. In bleaching these goods, the operation of liming may be omitted, the lime having a hardening effect on the fibre, and impeding the subsequent operation of raising.

Formerly the bleaching of cotton was performed in such a manner that the goods, after a treatment with potash lye (from wood ashes) were decolorised by the action of atmospheric oxygen ("grass bleaching"), these two operations being several times repeated, and supplemented by a process of souring by immersion in sour milk. The bleaching process, under these conditions, lasted one and a half to three months in the case of cotton, and twice as long for linen goods.

This primitive method contained the germ of the modern processes of bleaching, all of which, however highly developed, comprise the three main operations of treatment with alkaline reagents (the so-called "bowking"), the actual bleach, and the employment of acids.

The substances to be removed from the fibre by bleaching are the natural and the adventitious impurities, the former comprising incrustating substances, fat, wax, yellow pigment, etc.; whilst the others include the dressing materials applied to impart greater stiffness to the fibre, and so facilitate the operations of spinning and weaving—these are mostly mineral substances—and also mordants, dye-stuffs, etc., in the case of piece goods that have been used as backing in calico-printing.

It was quickly recognised that the first-named substances could be got rid of by boiling with alkaline reagents, and that the pigmentary matter of the raw cotton could be destroyed by means of bleaching powder, provided the greater portion of the mineral impurities had been previously removed. Consequently dressed cottons are either first steeped for some time in water, or, preferably, freed from the dressing by treatment with acids.

By boiling with lime the organic impurities can be converted into compounds that can then be readily dissolved and removed by boiling with soda and resin soap, the action of lime therefore being merely preparatory, and not actually one of cleansing: as a matter of fact, the goods are far darker in colour after liming than they were at first. The chemistry of this operation is still involved in some obscurity; probably the lime decomposes the pre-existing fats to form a lime soap, and converts the other organic matters into saccharine compounds or aldehydes, this view being countenanced by the discovery of Thies, who found that cotton treated with alkaline earth acquired strongly reducing properties. The acidifying ("souring") process after liming certainly decomposes the organic lime compounds, and enables the liberated fatty acids and other organic bodies to be brought into solution by the subsequent boiling with soda and resin lyes. At this stage the goods are already almost perfectly clean, and their faint yellow colour can now be destroyed by a treatment with bleaching powder, the latter being then eliminated by the aid of an acid bath, followed by washing with water.

The foregoing is a brief sketch of the modern bleaching process, which therefore consists of the following operations:—(1) Boiling with lime; (2) souring; (3) boiling with soda and resin soap; (4) bleaching with chloride of lime; (5) souring.

That each of the operations is succeeded by a rinsing in water, goes without saying.

Latterly it has been found that the operations of boiling with lime and soda-resin soap can be advantageously replaced by boiling with soda lye. Many difficulties were, however, encountered in introducing this alteration. In the first place, the lye must be weak, because strong lye mercerises and also weakens the fibre. Kœchlin proposed to aid the action of weak alkali by steaming the steeped goods, but this method damaged the fibre, and the proposal was therefore devoid of practical value.

Nevertheless, it is possible to cleanse cotton in an excellent manner, without the slightest injury, by the use of strong soda lye. The credit of uniting the various factors here concerned into a technically practicable method belongs to H. Thies and E. Herbig, who found that impregnation with alkaline earths protected the cotton from mercerisation during subsequent boiling with strong soda lye, provided the treatment were performed in the absence of air, both in the kier and in the material.

The cleansing action of strong lye is so complete that the Thies-Herbig process must be characterised as the most important improvement made in the bleaching of cottons. Its value is further increased by the fact that it is also applicable to other kinds of vegetable fibres.

In connection with modifications of the bowking process, it may be mentioned a sulphide is employed in France, and that the commercial product sold as "*sel de soude antiseptique*" seems to be a preparation of this kind.

The proposal to add benzine and other detergent substances to the bowking liquor has not yet been adopted in practice.

The actual operation of bleaching has not suffered any important alterations, notwithstanding the numerous proposals made from time to time; and, for the most part, bleaching powder continues to be used, the method of application being that already described. It is, however, in many cases replaced with advantage by a purer form of sodium hypochlorite.

To turn now to the details of the bleaching process, it may be premised that cotton is bleached, almost exclusively, in the condition of yarn or cloth, the only exceptions being the bleaching of loose cotton for surgical wadding and jewellers' wadding—the last named being usually dyed some delicate shade. The boilings necessary in bleaching would result in the entanglement and balling of the fibres if applied to the loose material, and the operation is therefore performed in the following manner:—The material is first cleansed by a short boiling in a weak alkali, *e.g.* a 3 per cent.

solution of sodium silicate (water glass), and then bleached, if necessary, with hydrogen peroxide. When required for medicinal purposes, the cotton must be very slightly moistened with water, an object attained by very gradually drying the bleached material.

Bleaching Cotton Piece Goods.

The preparatory operations in this process consist of marking, sewing, gassing, and raising. Each piece is marked with a number, etc., so that it can be recognised after bleaching, the marking colour—generally coal-tar—being of a kind capable of resisting the

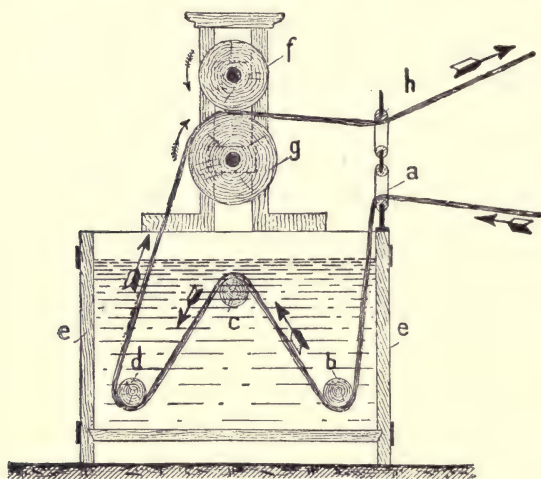


FIG. 15.

bleaching agents used. Then the pieces are sewn together, end to end, so as to make the entire batch of goods into one long piece or band. Next follows gassing, the object of which is to singe off the nap fibres standing up above the surface, since these would otherwise give the bleached material a woolly appearance, and also cause inconvenience in printing.

The pieces may be gassed one or more times, and on either or both sides, by passing them rapidly over red-hot plates or cylinders, or over a row of non-illuminating gas flames.

In the case of plates, there is a difficulty in keeping them at uniform temperature throughout, owing to the cooling action of the cloth. This inconvenience is reduced in the cylinder machines, but the naked flame method is the best, especially for light goods.

Occasionally, as in the case of flannels, mollinos, etc., the goods are raised before bleaching; this is generally confined to the under-side of the fabric though sometimes both sides are raised.

Full Bleach with Lime and Resin Soap for Piece Goods.

(100 Pieces of 65 yards.)

1. **Steeping.**—The goods are steeped in water for twelve hours, or even longer; this softens the dressing and other impurities

present, and facilitates their solution afterwards. This preliminary steeping is, however, frequently omitted, especially when the goods are fairly clean already. On the other hand, if the pieces contain much dressing, or have been used in calico-printing—in which event they will generally be strongly contaminated with alumina—they will need steeping for some time in a weak solution of hydrochloric acid or sulphuric acid.

2. **Lime Boiling.**—A milk of lime is prepared by mixing about $\frac{1}{2}$ cwt. of quicklime with 100 gallons of water, and passing the mixture through a sieve. Through this mixture the goods are passed, and are then transferred to the bowking kier (Fig. 15), an iron vessel fitted with a wooden grating as false bottom, which is covered with a layer of sack-ing and then with the band of goods, the latter being packed together as closely as possible, in order to prevent them from being displaced in the course of boiling, and also to guard against the formation of cavities or hollow spaces between the layers, since other-

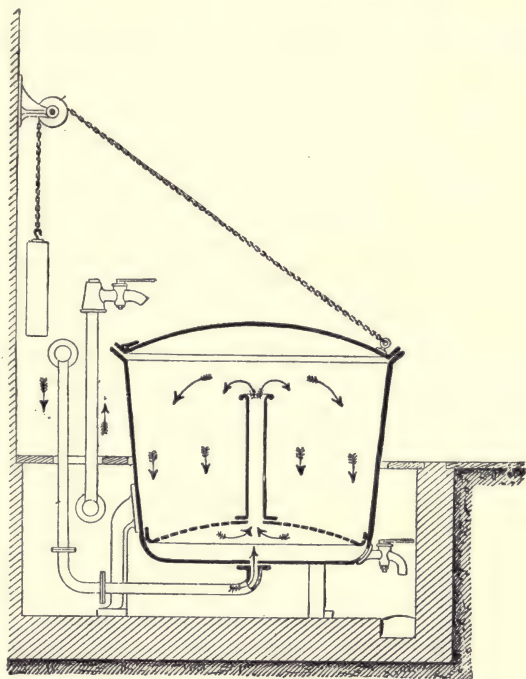


FIG. 16.

wise the goods are liable to local overheating or scorching. The whole is next covered with wrappering, tamped down with rods, and covered with water, which is then raised to boiling-heat, and maintained at that temperature for six to fifteen hours, the kier being closed, and the pressure kept up to three or four atmospheres. The duration of this lime boiling varies according to the class of goods and the pressure employed, light pieces being finished sooner than heavy ones, and high-pressure accelerating the operation.

Apart from the various forms given to bowking kiers, they all contain, as a matter of principle, some arrangement for ensuring a continuous circulation of the bowking liquor (see Fig. 16).

When the operation is finished, the lime liquor is run off, the pieces being then swilled with water and transferred to a washing-machine (Fig. 17). The lime must not be allowed to dry on the goods, or it will become very difficult to remove.

The washing machine used consists mainly of two wringer rollers, *e, d*, mounted on a strong frame, *a*, and driven by the pulleys, *b, c*; also of the roller, *h*, which revolves in the water, the grating, *l* (separating the hanks in the case of yarn), and the two porcelain orifices, *i, k*, for the ingress and egress of the goods.

3. **Souring.**—The goods are passed through a vat containing 2° B. hydrochloric acid—sulphuric acid, though occasionally used,

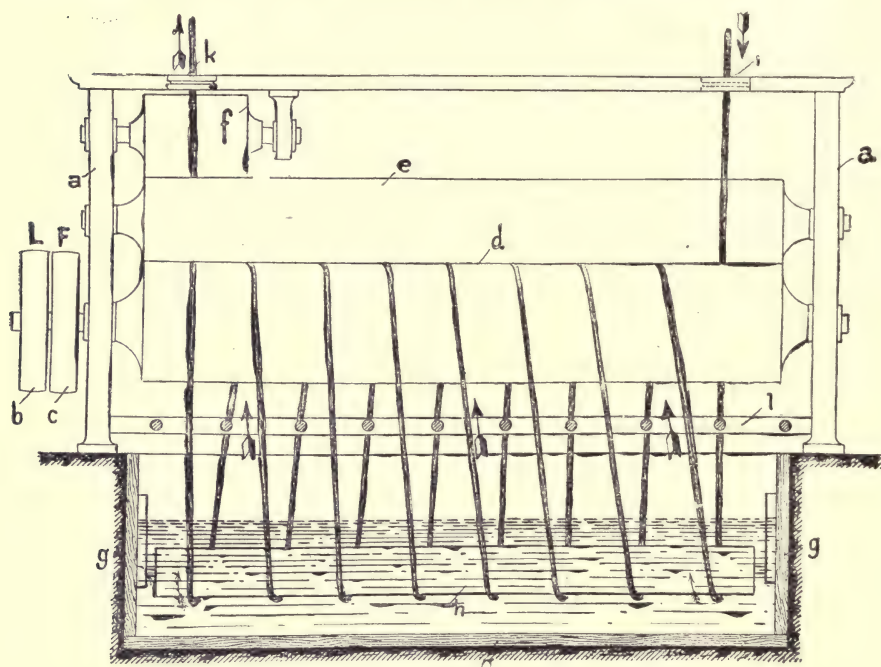


FIG. 17.

is less suitable, the insoluble calcium sulphate then formed being more difficult to eliminate than the soluble chloride—and is then left, covered up so as to exclude the light, in a wooden vat for about half an hour; or else the pieces are steeped for four to five hours in very weak (about $\frac{1}{2}$ ° B.) acid. After this they are washed.

4. **Boiling with Resin Lye.**—This operation is performed in the same manner as in lime boiling, and in similar kiers. The liquor is prepared by boiling 10 lb. of colophony with 30–40 lb. of soda and 20 gallons of water for about six hours. This

preparation is then diluted with about eight times its own volume of water, and the goods are boiled therein for about twelve hours, under a pressure of three atmospheres. After running off the liquor the goods are boiled with water, to remove the resin, and are finally well washed in the machine. If the goods were to be treated with cold water immediately after the resin boiling, the residual resin would adhere to the material and be difficult to remove.

5. **Bleaching** ("Chemicking").—The goods are impregnated with a clear, freshly made $\frac{3}{4}^{\circ}$ B. solution of bleaching powder, and then left alone in a dark place for half an hour or an hour; or they are steeped for six hours in a 0.3° B. solution of the same reagent. In either case the treatment is followed by a good washing.

6. **Souring**.—To eliminate the rest of the bleaching powder, which would render the goods friable in time, they are next passed through dilute (1° B.) hydrochloric acid, and left exposed to the air for half an hour; or they are steeped for several hours in a more dilute acid. Washing follows in either event.

Full Bleach for Piece Goods in Soda Lye.

1. The goods are steeped in water for at least twelve hours.
2. They are next boiled for fourteen hours in $2-2\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ B. soda lye, without pressure, to prevent the impurities being fixed in the material. Washing follows.
3. Souring, by immersion for four or five hours in $\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ B. hydrochloric acid, succeeded by washing.
4. Second lye boiling, with lye of the same strength as before, for sixteen hours, but under pressure; washing.
5. Souring as before; washing.
6. Chemicking. The goods are steeped for six hours in clear, freshly prepared 0.3° B. bleach liquor, and afterwards washed.
7. Souring as before, followed by washing.

If the goods are to be dyed with alizarine rose-red, they must be bowked with lime previous to the first lye boiling.

The Thies and Herzig Full Bleach for Piece Goods.

(30 cwt. of Cotton.)

1. Souring, partly for removing the mineral impurities, partly for separating them from their organic combinations. An original feature in this method is the addition of a small quantity of hydrofluoric acid, which increases the effect of the other acids and removes any silica present. The acid bath contains 10 grms. (1 per cent.) of 60 per cent. sulphuric acid, or 16 grms. of 30 per cent. hydro-

chloric acid, and 0.5 grm. of 75 per cent. hydrofluoric acid per litre. The cotton is steeped for four hours in its own weight of this solution, and is then exposed to the action of steam in a small steamer for about half a minute, and washed. When the goods are clean this preliminary treatment may be omitted.

2. The goods are steeped all night in a $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. soda lye at 50° C., to remove adherent matter, dried sap, etc. If the stuff is very unclean this operation is repeated.

3. The next process is washing in water containing an alkaline earth salt, which facilitates the removal of the alkali and deposits insoluble alkaline earth in and upon the fibres. Fifty grms. of 25 per cent. magnesium chloride are taken per 1000 litres of water—*i.e.* 0.0005 per cent.—or correspondingly less in the case of hard water. The pieces are then put through a wringer, so as to leave in the material only about its own weight of water.

4. Bowking in the kier by steam heat, at a temperature of over 100° C. This takes up to two and a half hours, according to the size of the kier, and is performed as a preparation for the following boiling in strong soda lye. The latter being introduced in a hot state, the mercerisation of the goods is prevented, and the steam expels the air which would otherwise enable the strong alkali to corrode the fibre.

Moreover, the conjoint action of the alkaline earth and heat on the impurities in the cotton results in the formation of reducing bodies, which are easily removed in the subsequent lye boiling, and besides counteract the oxidising action of the latter.

5. The goods are suffused with hot lye, at a temperature exceeding 100° C. This solution is prepared from 1 cwt. of 98–99 per cent. soda, causticised with lime and diluted to 110–120 gals., 20 lb. of resin being then boiled therein. This gives a lye of about 5–7 per cent. strength. The specified weight of cotton occupying a space of about 140 cub. ft., this quantity of lye will only be just sufficient to thoroughly impregnate the material. In the older methods the use of strong lyes was prohibited for economical reasons, since to cover the goods requires about 2–3 times their own weight of lye.

The circulation of the lye and steam is maintained by the pump, *d* (Fig. 18), which draws and delivers them into the vessel, *c*, thence into the heated vessel, *b*, from which they return to the kier, *a*, where the goods are situated. The vessel, *c*, contains a perforated pipe, *e*, through which a part of the steam escapes into the open air at *f*, thus compensating for the dilution produced by the saponification process within the vessel, and maintaining the uniform strength of the lye.

At the end of about three hours, the goods are washed with boiling water in the kier.

6. **Chemicking.**—This operation is performed with bleaching powder as usual, or with pure sodium hypochlorite, the only difference being that the liquors are merely one-third the ordinary strength.

7. Sourcing, as in the first operation.

The principal advantages of the Thies-Herzig process consist in a saving of about 40 per cent., as compared with the ordinary method (lime and resin soap), more rapid performance, absolute

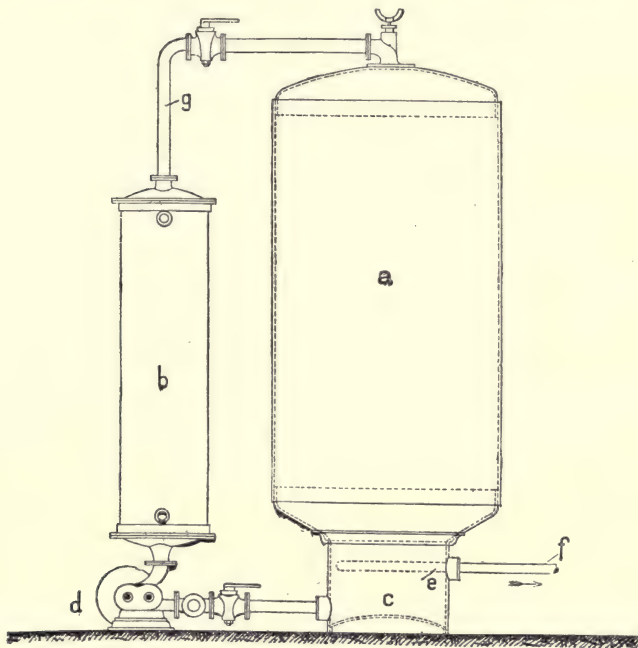


FIG. 18.

purification and unimpaired strength of the bleached goods. Indigo blue can be more readily discharged than usual when the goods have been bleached by this method.

Whichever method of bleaching has been employed the goods are afterwards loosened in a machine, then spread out and hot-calendered, or tented, if necessary, after which they are sorted and shorn. The latter operation is performed in order to remove the nap from the surface of the cloth, the short hairs composing same being first raised by brushing and then cut off by revolving cutters. A final brushing completes the process. Of course this operation is

omitted in the case of goods in which the pile constitutes an essential feature of the weave.

Bleaching causes the goods to lose 8–14 per cent. in weight, and even a loss of 20 per cent. is not extraordinary

In order to obtain perfect results, every stage of the bleaching process must be supervised with extreme care, the more so because a batch represents a considerable sum of money. The progress of the operations is checked by taking samples at intervals and dyeing them with alizarine, this test revealing any spotting produced by lime, resin, or bleach. The latter, due to the formation of oxycellulose, can be also detected by dyeing with methylene blue.

The bleached goods are washed out in separate machines and stored away from possibility of contact with chemicked or soured pieces. Great care must be taken to avoid rust stains, these forming the most unwelcome of all the bleacher has to fear. With this object the kiers must be kept perfectly clean; no accumulations of liquids must be allowed to collect in the steam and water-pipes, etc. Should they occur, these stains may be taken out with oxalic acid. Dye stains, such as the alizarine red on backing pieces from the calico-printers, can be discharged by bleaching with potassium permanganate.

Full Lye Bleach for Yarns.

1. The goods are steeped in water for about ten hours, but if the yarn be fairly clean this may be omitted.

2. They are next boiled for fourteen to sixteen hours in lye of $2-2\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ B. strength, followed by washing.

3. The next stage is souring, by several hours' immersion in $\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ B. hydrochloric acid, succeeded by washing.

4. Chemicking. The goods are steeped for about five hours in a $0.15-0.2^{\circ}$ B. solution of bleaching powder, and then washed

5. Second chemicking in the same way.

6. Second souring, as before.

7. The yarn is softened by steeping for some time in a hot solution of soap, and is then washed once more.

This method is very similar to that employed for piece goods. Modifications of the process are practised in some places, and occasionally the other methods described are applied to yarns.

Partial Bleaching.

As already stated, it is not always necessary to fully bleach cottons, this being done only when the goods are to be dyed in light shades or printed, whereas for dark shades of dyed goods

bleaching would in many instances be a superfluous operation, and one likely to injure the colour in the case of Turkey-red dyeing.

Cottons for half bleaching are bowked with lime or soda, soured, and washed. Yarns are boiled, without pressure, in a very weak soda lye, and then boiled off and rinsed; occasionally a simple boiling in water is sufficient. Goods to be dyed with aniline black do not require any cleansing at all.

White goods are first boiled with alkali, then chemicked, and blued with ultramarine. In the case of piece goods, this is done in the dressing process, but with yarns the ultramarine is applied in suspension in a warm soap bath. Latterly, however, owing to the ease with which irregularities occur in blueing with ultramarine, this pigment has frequently been replaced by methyl violet applied in an alum bath.

Out of the many methods proposed for bleaching cottons, the following may be mentioned:—

G. Hertel's Bleaching Process (German patent 75,435, 30/3/93).—The material to be bleached is impregnated with a $\frac{1}{4}$ –10 per cent. solution of Turkey-red oil (according to the desired effect), the excess being removed by wringing or draining in the hydro-extractor, and the goods boiled with 1.5–2 per cent. of caustic soda for six hours under pressure, after which they are rinsed, slightly soured, washed, lightly soaped, rinsed, and dried.

This method is claimed to be specially suitable for yarns to be dyed rose-red by the Erban and Specht process, and also for Mako cotton, which hitherto could not be bleached except by the aid of very strong chemicking baths.

In France (Rouen, for example) such cottons as are to be dyed in delicate shades are cleansed by boiling with lye and a sulpholeate. A product of this kind is sold under the name "Fankhausine," and is possessed of certain advantageous properties in that it readily moistens the cotton; the duration of boiling is reduced to one to four hours, and the bath may be allowed to cool down while in use—a condition impossible with the ordinary process. For goods that are to be dyed with basic dyes, the Fankhausine treatment can be applied at the same time as the tannin.

The Mather and Thompson Continuous Bleaching Process.

—The characteristic features of this process are that, after certain preparatory treatment, such as lye boiling, souring, etc., the goods are passed continuously over a series of rollers, and also through a chamber filled with gaseous carbon dioxide for the purpose of liberating hypochlorous acid and thereby increasing the activity of the bleaching powder. The goods are passed in succession through warm water, bleaching powder solution, the carbon dioxide chamber,

cold water, warm soda solution, water, a second chemicking bath, carbon dioxide gas, water, dilute hydrochloric acid, and, finally, water.

Electrolytic Bleaching Process.—The method is usually associated with the name of Hermite, who was the first to propose the preparation of a bleaching liquor by the electrolytic decomposition of magnesium chloride. The most important features of the process have already been described in dealing with sodium hypochlorite.

Linen-Bleaching.

The bleaching of linens is conducted on the same principles as in the case of cottons, the impurities being removed by boiling with lime or soda, and the colouring matter by the aid of bleaching powder.

The fibres are, however, more difficult to decolorise than those of cotton, owing to the larger quantities of impurities present, the amount and quality of which depend on the method of retting pursued. Consequently, this last-named process should be performed with special care.

Moreover, flax fibre is more susceptible than cotton, and on this account the various reagents must be used in a weaker condition and applied over and over again. The chief cause of the difficulty in bleaching flax resides in the brown substances, known as pectin bodies, contained in the fibre, since they cannot be destroyed by the unaided action of bleaching powder, but require the assistance of the grass bleaching process. Apparently these bodies are not destroyed by the bleaching agent, but are merely converted into a form more soluble in alkalis. A single vigorous treatment with bleaching powder does not suffice to remove the pectin bodies; neither is this treatment advisable, as it would certainly attenuate the fibre. The conversion of the pectin bodies into a soluble form is therefore a matter of repeated attacks with bleach, assisted by interposed treatments with alkaline baths, and supplemented by grassing.

Apart from the repetition of the various operations and the recourse to grassing, the process of linen-bleaching differs from that for cotton in that the goods are kept in motion during the treatment in the chemicking bath, and are subjected to friction between two fluted boards in order to get rid of particles of the adherent brown matter.

Flax is bleached either as yarn, twist, or in the piece, and the process is divided into four classes—quarter, half, three-quarters, and ull bleach, according to the degree of purification produced. The

loss in weight ranges up to as much as 18 per cent., or occasionally as high as 25 per cent., and ends at the half-bleach stage. The entire operation takes about three to six weeks.

The boiling is effected in open and in low-pressure keirs; the chemicking and souring are performed in a special manner, viz. in a series of (usually) three stone or wooden tanks containing respectively dissolved bleaching powder, water, and dilute hydrochloric acid. The yarn is suspended on pegs, which are mounted on a frame running on rails over the top of the tanks. Sometimes the pegs supporting the yarn are fitted with cog-wheels which engage in one another and cause the yarn to turn round and round in the bath liquor.

After a short time the entire frame is lifted out of the bath and transferred to the next tank, where the yarns are washed. In the same manner they are conveyed to the third tank, where they are soured, and are finally washed in a fourth vessel, or returned to the second tank for that purpose.

Piece goods are first moved about in the chemicking liquor for some time, and then left to steep therein, though more usually the movement is continued and extended over a longer time.

For grassing, the yarns and piece goods are spread on the grass in summer, and turned at intervals; in winter they are hung on sticks or frames. Naturally, the bleaching action is stronger in the summer, and becomes apparent after the lapse of only a few hours. Begemann proposed to expedite grass bleaching by first slightly blueing the goods with indigo, in order to ensure the absorption of the more active blue light rays as well as the yellow ones.

Well bleached linens should be white all through, and should not stain when treated with an alkali, such discoloration indicating imperfect removal of the pectin bodies.

The details of linen-bleaching naturally vary in different localities. The following description applies to the method as pursued in Silesia:—

Full Bleach—

1. Boil for nine to ten hours, or longer, according to quality, with 10 per cent. of soda, under gentle pressure.
2. Chemick with a bleaching powder solution, containing 4 per cent. of active chlorine; wash and sour.
3. Treat in hot (50° C.) soda solution in an open kier; wash.
4. Grass for two to three days (in summer), turning once.
5. Chemick for several hours in a weak solution of bleaching powder, evolving only an almost imperceptible odour of chlorine.
- 6, 7, 8. Repetition of 3, 4, and 5.
9. Weak soaping in circular vat, the soap solution being

admitted automatically, flowing through the yarn, collecting underneath, and returning to the goods after passing through an upcast pipe.

For quarter-bleach the operations are restricted to Nos. 1 and 2, in addition to a boiling with soda.

Piece goods are treated in the same manner, except that the operation commences with a lime bowking.

It should, however, be borne in mind that working on any invariable lines is an impossible matter in linen-bleaching, the method of treatment being wholly dependent on the quality of the goods and on the effect to be obtained.

Jute-Bleaching.

Almost every known bleaching agent has been tried on jute, from which circumstance it will be evident that a perfectly satisfactory method of bleaching this fibre has still to be discovered.

As a rule, the work is confined to a bleaching in the restricted sense of the term, sodium hypochlorite being chiefly used. Under these conditions a supplementary treatment with dilute bisulphite will prove beneficial.

The method of bleaching jute by alternate treatment with potassium permanganate and bisulphite, though rather expensive, furnishes good results, and the loss in weight is small.

Jute, being very susceptible to the action of alkalis, should only be treated with such as are of a very mild character, like sodium silicate, borax, etc.

However, this fibre is generally used in an unbleached condition, either in its natural colour, printed, or dyed (or both).

Hemp-Bleaching.

Great difficulty is experienced in bleaching hemp in a thorough manner, and the fibre is generally used in the unbleached state; in fact, only the yarns intended for making up into string are bleached, the operation being effected by the aid of bleaching powder after a preliminary cleaning with sodium silicate.

Ramie-Bleaching.

As already mentioned, the process used in Europe for bleaching ramie is almost identical with that employed for cotton; only, in the chemicking especially, greater care is necessary to ensure the protection of the fibre.

Scouring and Bleaching Silk.

The purification of silk consists in removing the sericin and colouring matter present in the raw material. As, however, these mainly reside in the bast layer, all that is necessary in most cases is to get rid of this latter by the operation known as scouring, or decorticating.

The bast layer gives the silk a hard, rough character, which prohibits its use in a raw state, except in very few instances. As a rule, silk is desired to exhibit all its valued properties, such as softness, lustre, etc., and on this account must be freed from the bast, the more so because raw silk cannot be dyed so permanently as when scoured, the reason for this being that the dyes are then absorbed by the bast, which afterwards yields them up more readily when washed.

Removing the bast entails considerable loss in weight, amounting to 18–22 per cent. in the case of Chinese and Japanese silks, and 25–30 per cent. in European silks. On this account it is often customary to only scour the silk to such an extent that the loss amounts to about 6–8 per cent., the endeavour being at the same time to impart to the product a portion at least of the valuable properties of scoured silk. The resulting product is known as “souple” silk, and is used as a weft. In treating this article, the fact that it will not stand warm soap or alkaline baths must be borne in mind; in fact, if only left to lie in a moist condition, it sheds part of its bast layer spontaneously, this effect being recognised by the formation of lustrous spots. It must therefore be either dried at once, or else dyed and dried; should immediate dyeing be impracticable, the silk must be left in water.

The silk is scoured in hank form, as grège silk, or also after weaving, the operation being performed by the aid of soap and soda. True, soap alone is best, and that too of good quality, devoid of free alkali or smell, and being readily soluble so that it can be afterwards easily washed out of the silk. Potash soap is better than soda soap for this purpose; and, in fact, soda does not form a good addition to the scouring bath, owing to its tendency to make the silk harsh. However, for the sake of cheapness, a mixture of soap and soda is frequently used, and the cheaper souple silks are even scoured with soda alone.

For better qualities it is essential to employ nothing but soap, an addition of soda being inadmissible, except for the purpose of softening the bath water, since the lime soap, otherwise formed, would be deposited on the fibre and dirty it, or at least spoil its sheen. It is therefore necessary in scouring silk to entirely prevent

any deposition of lime or magnesia soap on the fibre. Should the raw silk not be entirely free from mineral matters (*e.g.* dust) it is advisable to wash it, first in slightly acid water and then in pure water, before scouring. The same consideration must also be borne in mind in washing the silk after scouring.

Two scouring baths are generally required: the one containing 25 to 30 per cent. of soap, the second 20 per cent., calculated on the weight of raw silk treated.¹ The grège is treated in the first bath for about ten minutes or longer, according to the quality, at a temperature rather below 100° C. The bast swells up, making the silk sticky, and then dissolves, leaving the lustrous internal thread of the silk exposed. A sojourn in the second soap bath then completes the removal of the bast. Silk that is to be dyed in delicate shades is passed through a third soap bath, and finally rinsed with fresh water.

The first bath can be used seven times over, but will then be so full of sericin as no longer to be applicable for this purpose, though suitable for use as "bast soap" in silk-dyeing. The second bath, which contains a smaller proportion of sericin, is advanced to the dignity of first bath, a fresh solution being prepared in its place.

Of course it is not feasible to treat all kinds of silk in exactly the same way, some being more easily freed from bast than others; and in point of their ability to stand the action of the scouring baths considerable differences exist, Milanese trame silk being particularly ticklish to handle. In fact, this silk must not be left in the bath more than ten minutes, and, should the bath liquor contain any pre-existing sericin, the silk will be rendered "lousy." Such silk exhibits, when dyed, numerous light patches, due to disintegration of the silk thread; the appearance may, however, be improved by treatment, first with soap and afterwards with weak hydrochloric acid.

In the case of *loaded* silk, the removal of the bast is almost impossible to effect in a satisfactory manner, owing to the inevitable formation of metallic soaps. Before proceeding to the scouring process a portion of the loading materials has therefore to be eliminated by treatment with acid.

After the silk has been scoured it is stretched, chevilled (smoothed), lustred, bleached, loaded, and dyed. The first three

¹ The following recipe from a practical source may be cited as an example of other methods of scouring silk. The silk is treated for three to four hours at 70–80° C. in a bath containing 6 parts, by weight, of Marseilles soap and 1 part of soda per 1000 parts of water—the latter previously softened—after which the material is washed, soured with weak hydrochloric acid, and rinsed.

operations are performed with the object of rendering the silk as soft and lustrous as possible. Stretching consists in repeatedly pulling back the silk threads when stretched taut between two rods, and is effected either by hand or in a machine.

Smoothing is effected by winding the silk upon itself, by hand or in a machine, whereby the separate threads are smoothed by mutual friction. (Machines for this purpose are illustrated in Knecht, Rawson, and Loewenthal's *Handbook of Dyeing*.)

Lustring or glossing consists in imparting the maximum lustre to the silk by a combined process of stretching and steaming.

Bleaching is only practised when the silk is required to be white, or to be dyed in very light shades. Sulphurous acid is the agent employed, and the method has been already described in dealing with that reagent.

Loading.—In the case of white or very light-coloured silks, a dressing of tin chloride (*see* Chap. III.) is applied before dyeing, but dark-coloured silks are loaded in the dyeing process or afterwards, by the aid of tannic acid.

Scouring silk in the piece is a method increasing in favour on account of the advantages resulting from weaving the threads in an unscoured state. For example, raw silk is better able to stand friction, and is more elastic than when scoured, so that it is less liable to break in the loom; and again, the almost inevitable dirtying to which the threads are exposed in weaving is merely superficial in raw silk, and is readily removed in the subsequent scouring.

The operation is performed in a continuous manner by passing the pieces, full width, over rollers and through vats containing hot solutions of soap and soda (*e.g.* 6 parts of soap and 1 part of soda per 1000 parts of water); they are heated first to 70–80° C., then to 100° C. The operation takes a half to three-quarters of an hour, or sometimes longer.

Half-silk goods are scoured in the piece exclusively, and must be gassed beforehand. Half-silks to be dyed dark shades contain raw (unbleached) cotton, and therefore, except when the proportion of this is very small, the goods must be put through a strong scouring bath (containing 3–5 per cent. of soda, calculated on the weight of the goods), the operation in this case lasting one and a half to two hours.

Half-Scoured or Souple Silk.

To prepare half-scoured or souple silk, the silk is first cleansed by treatment in a weak, luke-warm soap bath, which at the same

time softens the bast. After this it is immersed in a 10 per cent. bath of potassium nitrite, strongly acidified with sulphuric acid for an hour, or for about a quarter of an hour in warm dilute *aqua regia* (nitro-hydrochloric acid); in the first case, the colour turns grey, in the second green. Then, after being treated in a bath of soap, plus a large proportion of soda, it is sulphured three times, six hours each time, in a damp state, the hanks being turned after each treatment. The next stage is rinsing in water acidified with sulphurous acid, followed by the actual process of softening, the hanks being steeped in a hot ($90-100^{\circ}\text{C.}$) 5 per cent. solution of potassium bitartrate, and an aqueous solution of sulphurous acid—the condensed droppings from the sulphuring chamber—until the threads are exposed, though this is not perfectly visible until they have been drained. According to the quality of the silk, the treatment lasts an hour or more.

Some dyers use a bath of bitartrate and hydrochloric acid, or magnesium sulphate, in which latter event the loading of the silk is effected at the same time; the feel of the silk is, however, best when sulphurous acid has been used. When the silk is to be dyed in dark shades the softening process may be performed with tannic acid in the dye bath.

Bleaching and Scouring Tussah Silk.—Attempts have been made to bleach Tussah silk by almost every known bleaching agent. The operation is a difficult one, and is therefore omitted except when the silk is to be dyed in light shades. For the most part it is woven in its natural colour.

The best bleaching agents for this fibre are the peroxides, the material being treated for an hour or so in a bath containing 50–100 per cent. of barium peroxide at about 90°C. ; or else with hydrogen peroxide in the manner prescribed for that reagent.

Scouring is also a more difficult process with Tussah than with true silk, and entails more time and the use of stronger soda baths.

Washing and Bleaching Wool.

Whereas the entire series of operations concerned in the purification of cotton are comprised in the term “bleaching,” a distinction is made, in the case of wool, between the actual bleaching process and the preparatory cleansing operations, the latter being termed “washing.”

As it comes from the sheep, wool is contaminated with so many impurities that washing is the first treatment necessary, it being impossible to spin unwashed wool, though raw cotton can be spun without question.

Woollen yarns and piece goods, though freed from the natural impurities of the fleece, nevertheless contain impurities consisting of the fatty matters added to the wool to facilitate spinning and weaving, in addition to dirt acquired by contact with dirty machinery, dust, and the workmen's hands. Consequently the washing of these goods is performed in a different manner to that employed for the raw wool.

Bleaching, as applied to wool, is restricted to yarn and piece goods, and plays a far less important part than in the case of cotton, the great bulk of manufactured wool never being bleached at all.

Though in this country it is a common practice to wash the sheep before shearing, this is rarely done in the case of foreign wool, and when practised has always to be supplemented by the usual wool-washing process, except for low-grade wools such as Hallina. This supplementary washing should be performed as soon as possible after shearing, since delay only increases the difficulty—as experience has shown in the case of fleece-washed foreign wools.

The washing to which the wool is subjected in wool-washing establishments is a far more important operation than fleece-washing, its object being to secure the removal of all the impurities comprised in the term "grease." For this purpose use is made of alkaline substances—soda, potash, soap, Quillaya bark (*Quilaya saponaria*), ammonium carbonate, and stale urine. Caustic alkalis, however, must be carefully avoided, owing to their known corrosive action on wool fibre.

The oldest known detergent for wool-washing is stale (putrescent) urine, which, when diluted with about five times its own bulk of water and used at medium temperatures, cleanses the wool very well. The real active ingredient is ammonium carbonate, liberated by the decomposition of the urea. Despite its unpleasant smell, this detergent is still used in many small works.

Ammonium carbonate itself is an excellent detergent for wool, but is still too dear for practical use, the field being left almost exclusively open to soap and soda (or potash). Usually a mixture of the two is employed, the proportions being regulated according to the quality of the wool and the hardness of the water. The coarser the wool the larger the proportion of soda, and it will be readily apparent that hard water requires more soda than soft water, it being necessary to throw down the lime and magnesia as carbonates, in order to prevent their deposition, in the form of fatty acid compounds (soaps), on the wool. The carbonates of these alkaline earths come down in the form of powder and can then

be easily washed out of the wool, which is not the case with lime and magnesia soaps; moreover, the formation of the latter entails a certain waste of soap.

Wool of low quality, such as is used for making coarse fabrics, rough blankets, etc., is washed with soda alone, for the sake of cheapness; but worsted wools are washed solely with soap. Wools for carding are washed with a variable mixture of soap and soda, averaging 4 to 5 parts of ammonia-soda and $1\frac{3}{4}$ –2 parts of soap per 1000 parts of water. Soda soon roughens wool, and the temperature should not be allowed to exceed about 50° C. when this alkali is used. Its employment is nevertheless essential for fine carding wools, since fine wools are more difficult to cleanse than the coarser kinds, and a larger proportion of soap would cause the fibre to shrink and thus unfavourably influence the wool for the purpose in view.

The exact proportions of soap and soda can only be determined by practical experience, since each kind of wool behaves differently in the washing. Hence care should be taken never to wash different sorts of wool together; and the sorting of wool previous to washing must be performed with great caution.

Other proposed adjuncts to the above-named detergents are—common salt, sal ammoniac, olein (as an emulsifier), etc., but none of them have made any headway in practice. Patented detergents of undisclosed composition, sold under fancy names for wool-washing, should be avoided in any case, since they are either worthless, or could be prepared by the washer himself at a much lower cost. For the most part they consist of a large proportion of soda and a very little soap, and are therefore generally recommended for washing with hard water.

Of late, experiments have been tried with the solvents used for extracting fats, such as carbon disulphide, benzine, etc., but the practice has been discontinued in nearly every case, the process having the disadvantage of requiring very complicated plant, and, in addition, the risk of fire is high and the fatty matters are too thoroughly removed, the wool thereby losing much of the suppleness so desirable in the subsequent treatment.

The Washing Process.—The wool is first carefully sorted and freed from burrs, which latter would injure the fibre if not removed. It is then put in the washing machine, the so-called “leviathan,” shown in Figs. 19 and 20, which consists of a series of tanks (generally four or five), the first of them containing the detergent solution, the others filled with warm clean water. The actual cleansing of the wool therefore takes place in the first tank, the temperature of which is kept at about 50° C., whilst the others serve for

rinsing the purified charge. Each tank is fitted with cranked rakes, which move the wool onwards, and between each two adjoining tanks is mounted a pair of heavy wringer rollers, which take the wool from the elevator and, after expressing the superfluous liquor, deliver it to the next tank. The best type of leviathan washer is that of A. Déru shown in Fig. 19, the chief advantage of this type residing in the excellent elevator and wringers, which latter work under a pressure of about eighteen tons. By this means the wool is wrung in a very thorough manner and the transference of dirty scouring liquor into the rinsing tanks is reduced to a minimum.

Fig. 19 shows the elevator and the submerging roller of the second tank of the Déru machine, the former consisting of two toothed wheels *a*, rotating about a shaft *b*, mounted at *d*. Bearings *c* support the pins *f*, which carry the paddles *g*, and the attached zinc forks *h*. The movement of the forks which carry the wool is effected by the sliding of the rollers *i*, *k*, on the tracks *l*, *m*, and the wool is delivered between the rollers *o*, *p*, whence it passes at *q* into the wheel *r*.

Fig. 20 shows the manner in which the wool is worked in the Demeuse machine by the crank rakes *b*, *c*, to the elevator *d*, and from the latter to the wringer rollers *f*, and thence to the creeper *h*.

The scouring liquor in the first tank will, of course, remove the bulk of the impurities, and will have to be drawn off after a certain time. In order to utilise the liquors to the utmost, that from the second tank is then run into the first one, its place being taken by that from the third tank. This transfer is effected by means of an injector.

When properly washed, wool still contains about 1 per cent. of fat. In some washing mills a larger proportion is designedly left in the wool, but this is not advantageous to the purchaser.

When washing worsted wool, it is sometimes the practice to incorporate combings, as a cheap and pure adjunct which unites well with the wool and cannot afterwards be detected therein.

The spent liquor from the washing machines is run into a collecting tank, through a vertical iron grating which keeps back any accompanying wool fibres. These latter, though very dirty, can be washed and sold as inferior wool. The liquors are then passed through a series of settling tanks, where the bulk of the suspended impurities is deposited, after which the liquid portion is either run off or treated with sulphuric acid or lime for the recovery of the contained fatty acids. When acid is used, the fatty acids are obtained in a free state, but when lime is employed they are in the condition of lime soaps, which must then be decomposed

by an acid. The former method is most in use, and is best performed in the warm. The recovered fatty acids are purified by pressing, smelting, and bleaching.

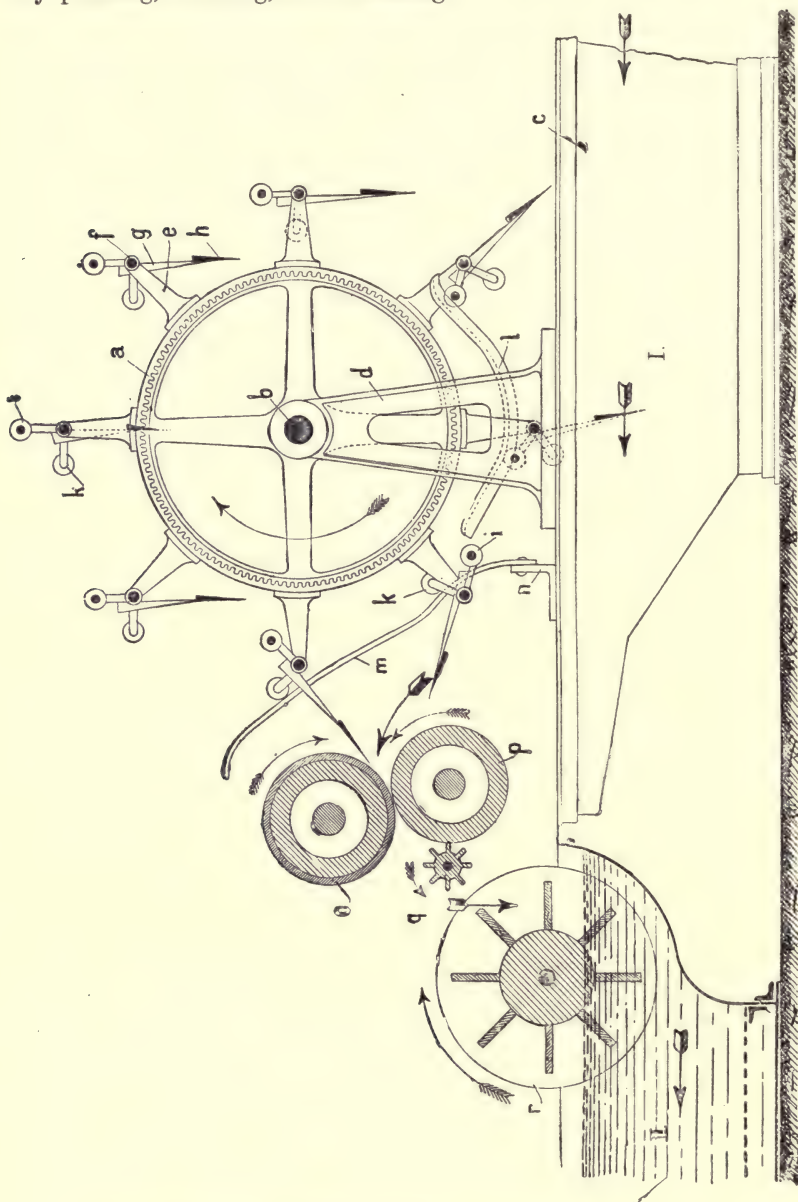


FIG. 19.

This recovery of fatty acids pays only in the case of large establishments, and even in such works the acids are sold in their crude state to the soapmaker.

Latterly the recovery of wool fat from the washing liquors is practised, the liquor being treated in a centrifugal extractor, which retains this fat. The latter is then purified by repeated meltings, boiled with water, and kneaded with water to form the commercial product lanolin, which is largely used as a salve, owing to its capacity for penetrating the skin. Liebreich was the first to recommend it for this purpose.

The soapy water left in the recovery of wool fat can be used over again as scouring liquor.

Finally, the potash in the yolk of the wool can be recovered if the wool, before washing, be systematically lixiviated in a series of tanks by the aid of water at a temperature of about 45° C. in order to obtain a concentrated solution of the yolk. To this end the solution containing the highest percentage of yolk is employed for treating the fresh wool, whilst the nearly exhausted

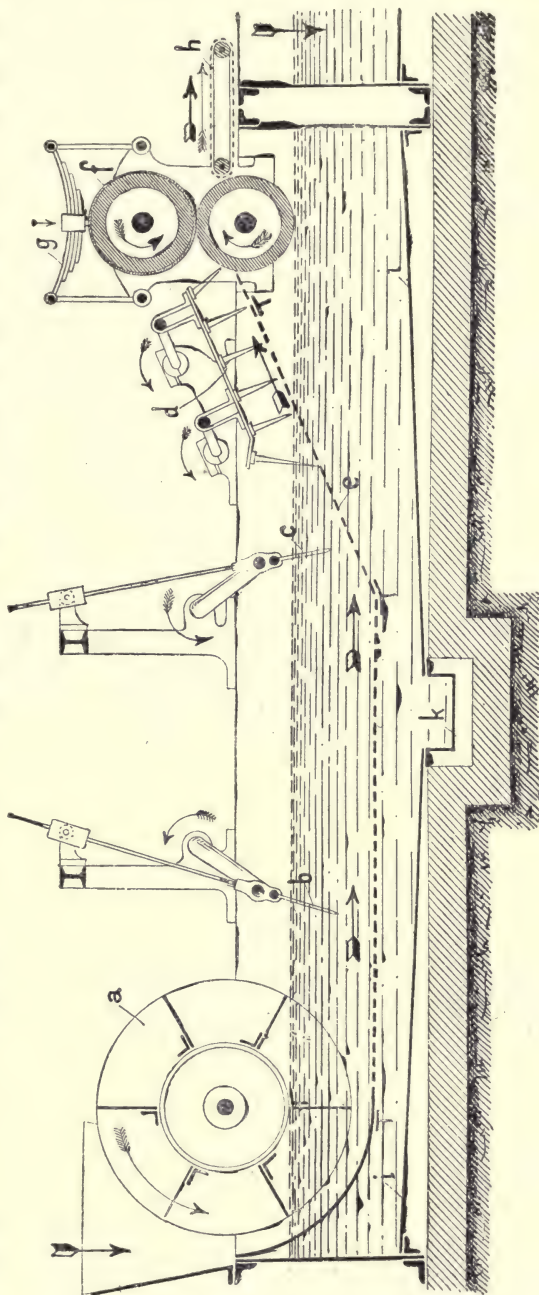


FIG. 20.

wool is treated with fresh water. In this manner a solution of about 10° B. is obtained, which can be converted into crude potash by concentration and calcination. According to Havrez, the concentrated extract may also be worked up into potassium ferrocyanide if treated with an addition of nitrogenous materials.

Washing Woollen Yarn.—Woollen yarns cannot be thoroughly purified unless the raw wool has been washed perfectly clean. All that the present operation has to effect is the removal of the oil added before spinning; and the method of treatment and composition of the washing liquor depend entirely on the degree in which the oil used is capable of saponification and emulsification. The yarn is treated in a solution of soap or soda (or both) at a temperature of about 40° C. until it ceases to feel greasy, which generally takes about half an hour. The wool is then rinsed in warm water, in order to prevent the residual fatty particles solidifying and sticking to the wool. It is therefore impossible to wash all yarns on a rigidly fixed plan, though generally a solution containing 4 per cent. of soap and 3 per cent. of soda, calculated on the weight of the yarn, will be strong enough. Worsted yarns are always washed with soap only.

Washing Woollen Piece Goods.—As in the case of yarns, woollen goods made from carded yarn are washed with soap and soda; worsteds with the former alone. The operation is performed in the following manner:—44 lb. of soap curd are dissolved by boiling in a 2° solution of soda, to form 66 gals. of washing liquor, which must be used warm, since it sets when cold. The piece is thoroughly steeped with this liquor in the machine, and is left in soak for a half to three-quarters of an hour, after which it is rinsed by adding fresh water until the effluent runs away clear. Should the goods still feel greasy, the operation is repeated.

Woollens are occasionally washed with soda alone, for the sake of cheapness, but this is inadvisable as it makes the fibre harsh.

Worsted is preferably washed twice, half an hour each time, in a 5° solution of olein (soft) soap.

Blueing or White Dyeing.

As already stated, the yellow tinge of imperfectly bleached fibres is often converted into a more or less pure white shade by the aid of blue dyes.

Cotton yarns, for example, are blued after bleaching by treating them with ultramarine in a soap bath, whilst cotton piece goods are treated with the same pigment in the dressing process.

White silk is blued in a lukewarm soap bath containing a very

small quantity of some blue or violet dye, the various blue methyl violet marks being most frequently used for this purpose.

This blueing process is of far greater importance in the case of woollens intended for parti-coloured or fancy articles. In this case a wide range of white shades is required, and, as in the case of silk, is usually obtained with methyl violet blues in a lukewarm soap bath.

The chief difficulty in blueing resides in the accurate matching of the required tint. Of particular importance when methyl violet is employed is the amount of soap taken for the bath, since, if an excess be used, an insufficient quantity of the dye will be absorbed, whilst in the contrary event the dyeing is liable to become irregular. The blued yarn has then to be sulphured, so that, in dyeing, the alteration sustained by the colour in this operation has also to be taken into consideration.

A white, capable of resisting fulling, is in many cases produced on loose wool by dyeing with archil and indigo-carmin.

So-called "pure white" is best obtained by first blueing the goods very slightly in a hyposulphite bath, and then shading off with fast acid violet, A2R (*Höchst Farbwerk*), which is a fast and readily distributable dye, in a fresh bath.

It is still customary in some places to dye woollens white by treating them with some insoluble alkaline earth salt, such as calcium carbonate, barium sulphate, etc., held in suspension in water; or by precipitating these substances direct on the fibre by passing the piece through a solution of sodium sulphate, and then immersing it in dissolved barium chloride.

Carbonising.

In addition to other impurities, sheep's wool contains burrs and other vegetable fragments, which adhere to the fleece and cannot be removed by washing. When such wool is dyed, the cellulose of the vegetable matter absorbs the dye less readily than the wool fibre, and then becomes apparent in the material as light-coloured spots or "nops." Formerly these were removed by cutting with a nopping tool, or hidden by staining with nop tinctures, but this procedure had many drawbacks, the cutters being liable to damage the cloth, whilst the staining was of a merely superficial character, and far from permanent.

At the present time this method has been superseded by carbonising, an operation whereby the vegetable matters in the wool are eliminated by the aid of acid and heat, which converts the cellulose into hydrocellulose, the latter being easily removed by

mechanical means. The operation derives its name from the carbonised appearance assumed by the vegetable matter under the treatment applied.

The reagents employed are sulphuric and hydrochloric acids, the former in a free state, the latter in combination as aluminium chloride or magnesium chloride, both of which split up into oxy-chlorides and free hydrochloric acid when heated. (The statement that these chlorides are converted into oxides and hydrochloric acid at the temperature employed in the carbonising process is incorrect.)

The woollen material to be carbonised must be clean, and, in particular, free from fatty matter. If the wool contain any soap residue, the carbonising process fixes the fatty acids upon the fibre in such a manner that their subsequent removal by washing is well-nigh impossible, and they will then show up as patches when the wool is dyed.

Carbonising is applied only to loose wool or piece goods; and even the latter alternative is attended with numerous drawbacks, owing to the formation of acid spots, soda spots, and other spots arising from impurities in the goods, these defects for the most part only becoming visible after the material has been dyed. On the other hand, these inconveniences are practically non-existent when the wool is carbonised loose, and for this reason the practice of carbonising in the piece has been discontinued at Verviers and many other places. Where still in vogue the process is applied to piece goods at various stages of manufacture, either just before or just after milling, or after dyeing. This refers only to woollens, worsted fabrics being seldom carbonised at all, since if not more than ten nops are found in a hundred-yard piece they are taken out by means of a nopping tool, and carbonisation is therefore superfluous.

The process is divided into three principal stages—impregnating the material with the carbonising reagent; the actual carbonising; and the removal of the residual reagent.

Impregnation consists in steeping the material for several hours in the reagent. In the case of sulphuric acid, the operation is performed in lead-lined tanks. To ensure thorough impregnation, piece goods must be drawn through the steeping liquor, the excess of the latter being squeezed out by means of rollers and removed by the hydro-extractor (which for this purpose must be lined with coarse cloth to prevent contact with the metal). They are then dried at a gentle heat, generally in a moderately heated drying chamber; though sometimes this preliminary drying is omitted, and the goods are carbonised in their wet state. In such event, however,

it must not be forgotten that the action of the reagent is far more energetic.

Care is necessary to see that the impregnation is performed in a perfectly uniform manner, and that no irregularity occurs in the drying, and consequently in the distribution of the carbonising reagent, since this will certainly result in the production of spots in dyeing. This is especially the case in carbonising piece goods, and the latter should therefore be carefully drained in the hydro-extractor and carbonised as soon as possible, being stored in the meantime away from contact with light and air.

The actual carbonising is effected by passing the impregnated material through a carbonising stove, such as the one illustrated in Figs. 21 and 22.

Fig. 21 represents a wool-drying stove also used for carbonising. The wool is introduced at *a*, and passes through the chamber *b*, falling from one set of conveyors to the others in succession until it is discharged at *c* into the box *d*.

Fig. 22 shows the excellent wool-drying and carbonising machine made by Déru. The wool is introduced at *a*, and rests on the hinged gratings *b*, which, when turned through a quarter revolution, as at *c*, allow the charge to fall from storey to storey until it arrives at *d*. The drying is effected by hot air blown in through the heater *f* by the fan *e*; *i, i*, are dust cages, and *k* is a grid for retaining any fibres that may be carried away.

Piece goods are carbonised in an apparatus similar to Fig. 21, the pieces being led over rollers up and down through the chamber. Heat is imparted by iron steam-pipes led through the chamber, but, in order to prevent rust spots, all the pipe connections must be situated outside the chamber.

The temperature and the duration of the process depend on the reagent, and, to a smaller extent, on the quantity of impurities to be eliminated, as well as on the thickness of the material in the case of piece goods. Full particulars will be found below in dealing with the various reagents used.

After carbonising, the loose wool is willowed—piece goods being beaten—at once to remove the burrs, etc., whilst still dry and brittle.

Finally, the residual reagent must be got rid of. When magnesium- or aluminium-chloride has been used, this is effected by a vigorous washing in water, but in the case of sulphuric acid the excess has to be neutralised by treating the wool with a lukewarm solution of soda (about 2° B.) for half an hour or an hour. The elimination of the acid must be complete, since any allowed to remain would concentrate in the subsequent drying, and corrode

the wool fibres, the result being the production of acid stains in dyeing. However, when the goods are to be dyed with acid dyes the neutralisation may be omitted, the removal of the acid being then unnecessary. This happens, for instance, in the dyeing of fezzes.

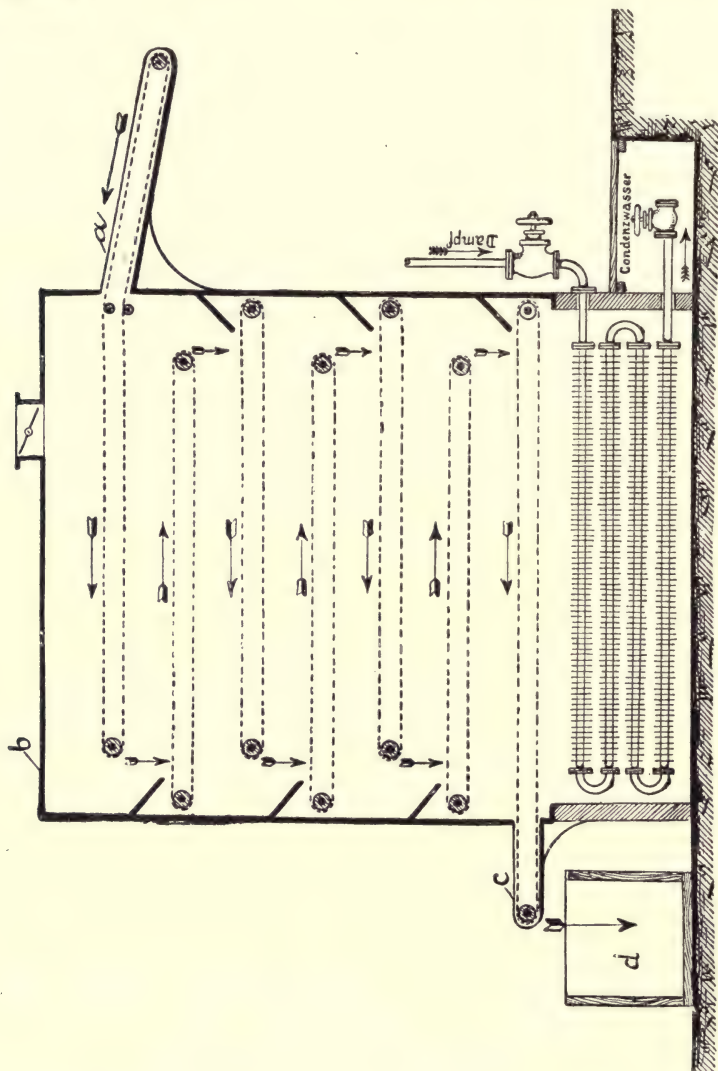


FIG. 21.

After neutralisation is finished the soda in turn must be thoroughly got rid of by washing, since otherwise the concentration of the alkali in drying would result in the formation of soda spots on the dyed goods being subsequently exposed to a high temperature (as in the dressing process).

At Verviers and other places the neutralising operation is performed with soap and soda in small (three-tank) leviathans, the soap being used for correcting the harshness produced in the fibre by carbonising.

Carbonising Agents.—The most important and most largely used of these is sulphuric acid, which is only replaced by magnesium-

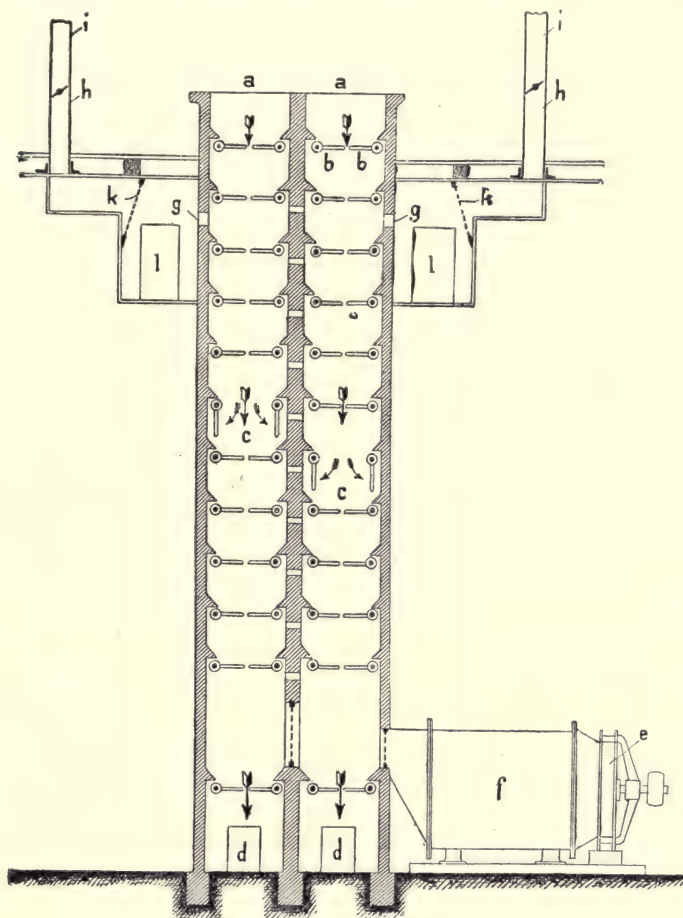


FIG. 22.

or aluminium-chloride, when the operation has to be performed on woollen fabrics dyed with colours unable to resist the acid, otherwise dyed cloth can be carbonised with this acid. Both the above-named chlorides are milder in their action than the acid in question, and have less effect on the fibre or colour of the material under treatment. This is due to several causes. In the first place, sulphuric acid is a stronger acid than hydrochloric

acid, the more so that it is not volatile at the temperature of the carbonising process, and therefore remains in the fabric. Secondly, in using the said chlorides, the temperature is such that ammonia is liberated from the wool and neutralises the freed hydrochloric acid to some extent, so that the latter only exerts its full power in such places where vegetable matters occur. Finally, the action of the hydrochloric acid is weakened by the oxychlorides formed.

The main defect of the chloride process of carbonisation resides in the high temperature required for the decomposition of the reagents, the consequence being that, especially with magnesium chloride, the wool is always faintly tinged with yellow, thus impairing the purity of the more delicate colours, especially blues. This defect is less apparent with aluminium chloride; this salt nevertheless being ever less and less used, on account of its higher price. Generally speaking, therefore, only two carbonising agents—sulphuric acid and magnesium chloride—are in current use.

Carbonising with Sulphuric Acid.—The usual procedure is to employ 4° B. acid, the temperature of the operation being 70–80° C., and the duration about twenty minutes. The practice, however, varies in different establishments, the concentration ranging from 2–6° B. The more dilute the acid the higher the temperature required, and *vice versa*. Thus, acid of 2° B. strength must be applied at a temperature of about 100° C., whereas 6° B. acid can be used at about 60° C. It is always preferable to work with weaker acid and employ a higher temperature than under converse conditions.

Where the fabric to be carbonised has cotton selvages, the latter must be protected from attack by coating them over with a solution of soda, thickened with fullers' earth and gum. This practice may, however, prove a source of inconvenience, inasmuch as by using an excess of the said solution the wool bordering the selvages is liable to corrosion from the soda, and soda spots will form in dyeing. The defect may be obviated by using sodium acetate instead of soda.

Carbonising with Magnesium Chloride (A. Frank, 1877).—The fabric is impregnated with a 15° B. (or weaker) solution of magnesium chloride, and carbonised for thirty to forty-five minutes, at 140–150° C. According, however, to Breinl and Hanofsky a 9° B. solution is strong enough.

If magnesium chloride be heated by itself to 140–150° C. for some time, only about one-half of the contained chlorine will be liberated as hydrochloric acid, an oxychloride with a strongly alkaline reaction being left; and the same result apparently ensues

when a fabric is carbonised with this salt. Accordingly the fabric so treated gives a strongly alkaline reaction afterwards, and this reaction may be occasionally so pronounced that the fibre is attacked, and assumes under the microscope the same appearance as when corroded by soda (see Fig. 12). To prevent this, it is necessary to thoroughly dry the material after impregnation and to keep the carbonising chamber perfectly dry. From the foregoing, it also follows that dye-stuffs sensitive to the action of alkalis will suffer more or less when carbonised with magnesium chloride. For the most part, however, the defect can be corrected by after-treatment with dilute acid.

When the piece to be carbonised is one with cotton selvages, the latter must not be coated over with soda, since the resulting alkaline magnesium carbonate would corrode the wool. Consequently, in such event, the carbonising must be performed with sulphuric acid; or the selvages could be dressed with sodium acetate.

In carbonising with magnesium chloride, care must be taken that no magnesia soaps are formed in the material, since these render the fibre harsh and cannot be removed by washing.

Carbonising with Aluminium Chloride (R. Joly, 1874).—The fabric is steeped in a 7° B. solution of aluminium chloride (as neutral as possible), then well dried, carbonised at $120\text{--}130^{\circ}$ C. for one hour, and well washed.

When aluminium chloride is heated by itself at 120° C., about four-fifths of its chlorine is driven off as hydrochloric acid. Here, also, an oxychloride is formed, which, however, differs from that of magnesium by having an acid reaction.

As in the case of magnesium chloride, care should be taken to prevent the formation of a soap of the metal on the fabric; and, finally, it may be mentioned that a variety of carbonisation effects may be produced on mixed cotton and wool fabrics by printing with aluminium chloride. Owing, however, to the cost of this reagent and its lack of advantages, its use in carbonising is now practically abandoned.

Carbonising with free hydrochloric acid was practised, but only for a short time, in Belgium. The hydrochloric acid gas produced by the action of sulphuric acid on common salt in retorts, was conducted by means of a current of air over the wool spread out on frames; or a solution of the acid was sprayed over the wool by a revolving brush, the material being afterwards exposed to a high temperature. The disadvantages of the method consisted in the corrosion of all the metallic fittings of the apparatus, and in the difficulty experienced in regulating the strength of the reagent.

The defects of manufacture liable to be produced by the operation of carbonising are, as already mentioned, the stains developed in the subsequent dyeing, and which are due to either acid or alkali.

Soda stains may result from neutralisation or from carelessness in carbonising with magnesium chloride, or, finally, from dressing the cotton selvages with soda. They frequently appear as dark patches in the dyed cloth, and can almost invariably be recognised by microscopical examination.

Acid stains occur solely after carbonisation with sulphuric acid, and show up as light patches in the dyed cloth (sometimes also before dyeing). If the action of the acid in these places has been strong, they will be found to damp more readily in water than the other parts of the material. These stains require a very experienced eye to detect under the microscope.

However great the care bestowed on the sulphuric acid carbonisation process, the presence of impurities is liable to cause acid stains; hence, in the case of such wools, it is better to carbonise with magnesium chloride.

CHAPTER III

MORDANTS AND MORDANTING

Mordants.

IN the operations of dyeing and printing fabrics a number of metallic salts are employed to fix the mordant dyes, in the form of lakes, on the fibre. The lakes are compounds of the dye-stuffs with metallic hydroxides. They are insoluble and very resistant towards reagents, and the usual method of bringing them on the fibre is to first precipitate the hydroxide, from a metallic salt, on the fibre and then dye with a suitable dye-stuff. The metallic salts, or hydroxides, used for this purpose are termed "mordants," and the operation of precipitating the hydroxides in and upon the fibre is known as "mordanting."

To be of practical utility, a mordant must fulfil the following requirements:—Cheapness; easy precipitation of the hydroxide; insolubility in water on the part of the hydroxide, coupled with a certain affinity for the fibre; the resulting colour lakes must be of good colour and as "fast" as possible, *i.e.* capable of withstanding the influence of light, acids, alkalis, etc. These conditions, however, are fulfilled by only comparatively few metallic salts, and, in fact, the only mordants in practical use are the alumina, iron, chrome, tin, and copper mordants. The alkalis are not mordants, both their hydroxides and the compounds of these with dye-stuffs being soluble in water, and though the alkaline earths give insoluble colour lakes, the colour of these is poor, and they have no affinity for the fibres. As regards the remaining metals, not all of these have been examined as to their capacity for forming lakes. Some of them furnish good colour lakes, which, however, are too dear for practical application (*e.g.* nickel), whilst others, though cheap, give lakes deficient in stability (*e.g.* zinc).

Some dye-stuffs yield faster lakes when other metallic salts—chiefly those of lime, zinc, or magnesia—are allowed to take part in the formation of the lake. Such salts are termed supplementary mordants, and are used in calico-printing with steam dyes. A combination of two or more fast mordants will also frequently

produce more stable lakes (*e.g.* alizarine red on wool). One peculiar and hitherto unexplained feature is the behaviour of the alumina and iron mordants in presence of certain dyes, it being impossible to dye with alizarine (*see* Turkey-Red) a fabric that has been mordanted with alumina or iron, unless lime salts be present.

One and the same dye-stuff will furnish colour lakes of divergent shade and fastness with different mordants. The lightest and brightest are the tin and alumina lakes, the copper and iron lakes being the darkest, whilst the chrome lakes occupy an intermediate position in this respect. In point of stability, it is a difficult matter to generalise, but, as a rule, the copper and iron colour lakes are the fastest under the influence of light.

The behaviour of the various textile fibres towards mordants is mainly dependent on their nature, and, in a secondary degree, on the metallic salt of which the mordant is composed. A general description of the behaviour of the fibres towards mordants, and the operation of mordanting, will therefore be given first, after which the special applications of the separate mordants will be briefly considered.

Mordanting Wool.

The high absorptive capacity of wool finds expression in an interesting manner in the mordanting process, for when wool is immersed in a solution dilute of some mordant, it absorbs a portion of the contained metallic hydroxide, leaving the remainder in solution, *i.e.* only a small proportion of the acid in the metallic salt present is taken up. This absorption goes on at the ordinary temperature, more rapidly in the warm, and most quickly and completely at boiling-heat. The usual manner of explaining this peculiarity is by saying that the wool has a power of decomposing salts and takes up a strongly basic salt, leaving behind a strongly acid salt in solution. If, however, the mordanting be performed in a more concentrated solution, it will be found that the proportion of acid taken up in comparison with the base increases with the strength of the bath, and when a certain degree of concentration is attained more acid is taken up than base. Consequently wool possesses an absorptive capacity for both acids and bases, each class of substance being taken up from the mordanting salt as though it alone were present, the absorption being chiefly dependent on the concentration and temperature of the mordanting bath. Wool is also able to absorb a portion of a free acid from solution, but its behaviour towards the mordanting hydroxides cannot be determined by direct experiment owing to their insolubility in water.

For the above reasons the assumption that a basic salt is taken up in the mordanting process is untenable; and equally arbitrary is the hypothesis that the salts are decomposed by the wool, the dissociation being effected at the moment of their solution in water by the action of that solvent.

From the foregoing it is evident that dilute solutions are necessary in the practical performance of the mordanting process, the object of the operation being solely to deposit a metallic hydroxide on the fibre; whilst the amount of acid absorbed should be as small as possible, owing to its unfavourable action on the formation of a lake and on the shade of the colour in the subsequent operation of dyeing.

It has also been noticed that in the event of too rapid absorption the hydroxide is generally fixed in an imperfect manner, being more superficial and often causing uneven dyeing. The mordanting should therefore be carried on slowly and gradually, on which account salts that are easily dissociated, like the acetates and basic salts, cannot be used for mordanting wool. The most suitable mordants are—of the alumina mordants, alum and aluminium sulphate; of the iron mordants, ferrous sulphate; of the copper mordants, copper sulphate (blue vitriol); of the tin mordants, stannous chloride (tin salt); and of the chrome mordants, potassium and sodium bichromates, and chromium fluoride. Even when these are used the operation will go on too fast if the wool be immersed in the boiling hot mordant liquor; and the process must therefore be pursued in the following manner:—The wool is first thoroughly wetted by boiling in water for half an hour to one hour, after which it is entered in the bath of lukewarm mordant, to which a small quantity of an acid substance has been added (see below). The temperature of the bath is then slowly raised to 100° C. (in about an hour) and boiling is continued for an hour to an hour and a half longer. Loose wool and yarn must be thoroughly worked about in the bath to ensure uniform mordanting of the whole of the fibre, and piece goods are kept in motion by winding.

After mordanting, the goods are generally merely cooled down and the excess of liquid removed, rinsing being omitted. Loose wool is spread on the floor, yarn being unwound and hung up, and piece goods alternately folded and opened out again, and finally hung on a wooden frame to allow the excess of bath liquor to drain away. The hydro-extractor is, however, a better means of draining the goods.

Before drying, the mordanted wool must be dyed, since otherwise it would have to be re-wetted for dyeing—a difficult operation

when alumina mordants have been used. The usual custom is to leave the wool overnight after mordanting, the reason given for this procedure being, that unless allowed to stand for some time the wool takes more dye-stuff to dye it than otherwise. The real purpose of the delay, however, is apparently to give the excess of mordant time to drain off, since the larger the amount of this liquor introduced into the dye bath the greater the loss of dye through useless precipitation as insoluble colour lake. It is therefore more rational to wash the mordanted woollen material previous to dyeing, but it should first be allowed to get quite cold, or part of the fixed mordant will be sure to wash out.

When the wool has been mordanted with a sulphate, *e.g.* alum or ferrous sulphate, it will always contain a little sulphuric acid; whereas when stannous chloride has been used the fibre takes up only a very little hydrochloric acid, if any at all, partly because the amount of this mordant used is small, and also because wool has probably a smaller capacity for absorbing hydrochloric acid than it has for sulphuric acid. Should the acid so absorbed be found to have an unfavourable effect on the dye, the defect may be remedied by adding a little ammonia, to neutralise the acid, towards the end of the dyeing process. This is frequently done in dyeing with logwood, and the same effect may be produced by means of calcium acetate (obtained by correcting the water with acetic acid), the favourable influence of which salt in logwood dyeing is thus explained.

In the foregoing method of mordanting, it is always customary to add a small quantity of some acid substance to the bath, such as potassium bitartrate, oxalic acid, or sulphuric acid, the first named being most frequently used, notwithstanding its high price. The part played by these adjuncts has not yet been elucidated; but it is assumed that in mordanting with sulphates, chlorides, etc., they retard the dissociation of the salts in question and protract the absorption of the hydroxides by the fibre. In ordinary mordanting with potassium bichromate these acid substances play a different part, as will be set forth in the description of the process later on.

When dyeing with hard water and using bitartrate, it will be necessary to correct the water beforehand by an addition of 5–10 per cent. of 8° B. acetic acid, since otherwise the bitartrate would be neutralised by the lime in the water, and would cease to act.

Mordanting Silk.

Silk has a high capacity for absorbing the most divergent substances of acid and basic character, though this property is manifested in a different manner to that of wool, being greater in

the cold and at medium temperatures than at boiling heat; consequently, if an attempt be made to mordant silk in the same manner as wool, only a very small quantity of the hydroxide will be taken up. The most suitable mordants for silk are cold concentrated solutions of basic salts, readily dissociated by dilution with water. On prolonged immersion in such solutions the silk takes up a portion of the hydroxide and a part of the acid present—just as in the case of wool. On then washing the material in water, the unfixed excess of the mordant is removed, on the one hand, whilst, on the other hand, a part of the same is dissociated by the dilution, and a further amount of the hydroxide is fixed on the fibre. To complete the fixation the silk is finally entered in an alkaline bath, which removes the last traces of acid present, before washing. The operation of washing between the mordanting and the fixing processes is performed with a large volume of (preferably running) water, a special washing apparatus being used, consisting of a series of hollow, perforated porcelain cylinders. These are set parallel, side by side, and are caused to revolve after the silk hanks have been hung upon them. By means of water discharged through the perforations and through jets placed between the hanks, the material receives a thorough washing.

The best mordants for silk are basic alum, aluminium acetate, basic ferrous sulphate ("Rouil mordant"), basic chromium chloride, chrome mordant GA III, and stannous chloride.

Mordanting Cotton.

Cotton differs from wool and silk in having practically no absorptive capacity for metallic hydroxides, and must therefore be mordanted in a different manner. There are two ways of doing this. In one the metallic hydroxide is deposited in and upon the fibre by first impregnating the latter with acetic acid, the bulk of which is then volatilised by drying and the remainder eliminated by treatment in an alkaline bath. In the other method the hydroxides are precipitated on the fibre as insoluble tannates or fatty-acid salts by first steeping the cotton with tannic acid or fatty acid, and then treating it with the metallic salt used as the mordant.

The former method is used exclusively in dyeing piece goods, being difficult to perform with regularity in the case of yarns. Moreover, it is restricted to mordanting with alumina and iron. The *modus operandi* is as follows:—The cottons are first impregnated in a thoroughly uniform manner, with a dilute solution of aluminium acetate or iron pyrolignite in a padding-machine, the operation being termed "padding."

In the padding-machine sketched in Fig. 23 the goods are unwound from the roller *a* and passed over the stretcher *b* to the trough *c*, which contains the mordant and three guide rollers *d*; thence the piece passes between the wringer rollers *e*, *f*, and is finally wound on the roller *g*. All the rollers are of wood, and their trunnions rest on sloping arms *h*, so that the roller *g*, which is driven by the upper wringer roller, can move slowly upwards in proportion as its diameter increases in consequence of the cloth being wound upon it. The upper wringer is weighted by the weight *m*, which acts through the levers *i*, *l*, and the rod *k*, the length of the latter being adjustable by turning the extension screw *n*.

With light goods a single passage through the padding-machine

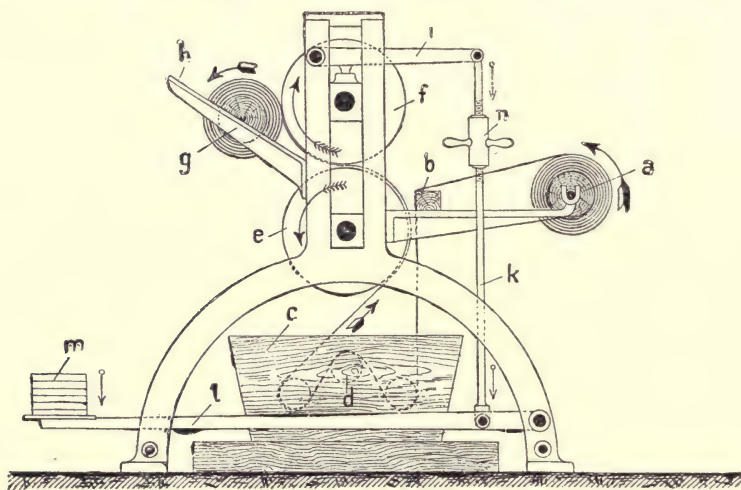


FIG. 23.

is sufficient, but heavy goods require to be put through twice. This done, the piece, instead of being wound on the roller *g*, as shown in the figure, is led (over as few guide rollers as possible) up and down through a gently heated chamber, known as the "hot flue," where it is dried sufficiently to make it fit for transport. In this manner the cotton retains the mordant acetate in an almost entirely unaltered condition. The amount depends on the concentration and on the pressure exerted by the wringers, this being usually adjusted so that the goods retain about their own weight of mordant solution. The next stage is to hang the goods in a warm chamber, extending through several storeys in the building and heated by steam pipes laid on the floor, covered by a layer of spars. A second set of heaters is preferably arranged

above the ceiling, to prevent the goods being spotted by condensed moisture. In addition to a high temperature, a certain degree of moisture in the atmosphere is necessary to the due performance of this process, for which purpose water vapour is introduced into the chamber by allowing drops of water to trickle on to the heating-pipes from perforated pipes mounted just over the latter. The degree of moisture is registered by a suitable hygrometer. Ventilation is provided by means of air-pipes reaching from the floor up to above the level of the roof. The printed goods are hung in this chamber for about forty-eight hours, at a temperature of about 30°C ., the wet bulb of the thermometer indicating some $3-4^{\circ}$ lower.

This operation is often styled the "oxidation process," probably because it is frequently employed for developing aniline black, in which case oxidation actually occurs. When the goods have been mordanted with acetate, the acetic acid is volatilised in the hot chamber, leaving the metallic hydroxide deposited on the fibre in the finely divided state necessary for the subsequent dyeing. When iron is used, a gradual oxidation to ferric hydroxide also occurs. It is essential that this process should be carried on in a very gradual manner, since, if the hydroxide be fixed rapidly—for example, by steaming for a short time—the colours will come out less full and handsome in dyeing.

To thoroughly fix the hydroxide, the residual traces of acid must be removed by a mild alkali, for which purpose the goods are next "dunged" by passing them over guide rollers through several vats—at least two—containing a decoction of cow dung and levigated chalk (see Fig. 24). This decoction is prepared by boiling 4 parts by weight of cow dung and 0.3 part of levigated chalk in 7 parts of water for about two hours. The first vat is charged with 8 cwt., and the second with 6 cwt. of the preparation, the temperature being maintained at 60° and 50°C . respectively. When about 600 yards of material have been passed through the vats, the baths are replenished with about 30 lb. of the preparation. The goods remain in the bath for about two minutes.

The levigated chalk and the faintly alkaline substances present in the cow dung neutralise the residual traces of acid in the material.

Many attempts have been made to replace cow dung by faintly alkaline salts, such as ammonium carbonate, sodium phosphate, arsenite, silicate, etc., but though these all act in the desired direction the best colours are still obtained by the use of cow dung. This may probably be attributable to the mucinous condition imparted to the water by the substances dissolved out of the dung, in con-

sequence of which no scouring action is exerted on the goods during their passage through the bath. The best substitute for cow dung out of those named above is ammonium carbonate, employed in the state of a 2 per cent. solution, and at ordinary temperature.

The mordanting process is completed by swelling off the impurities collecting on the fibre in the dung bath, and by a thorough washing.

Similar in principle, but less objectionable in performance, is the mordanting of cottons with chromium bisulphite or chromium acetate, the goods being padded with the dissolved mordant, and fixed with boiling hot soda solution after drying.

Mordanting with the assistance of tannic acid or fatty acids will be described later on in dealing with these fixing agents.

The Mordants used in practice are—salts of aluminium, iron, chromium, tin, or copper. The two last named are the least

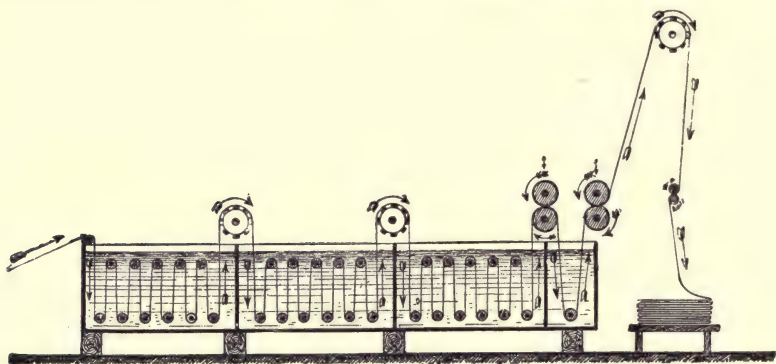


FIG. 24.

important, the principal mordants now used being those of the chromium group.

Alumina Mordants.—These are employed in the production of the following colours:—Alizarine red and alizarine orange, on all three classes of fibre; alizarine rose-red on cotton; amethyst, with cochineal, on wool; yellow shades with natural dye-stuffs; log-wood blue on wool; and certain mixed shades, with alizarine and other dye-stuffs, on cottons.

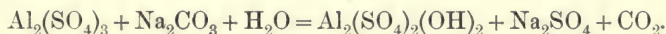
In most cases the alumina mordants should be free from iron, the iron lakes being darker and duller in colour than the alumina lakes, so that, if present, even a small amount of iron would suffice to dull the colours produced by the aid of alumina mordants. For instance, alizarine gives a brilliant red with alumina mordant, but a dull violet lake with iron; consequently a handsome alizarine

red can only be developed when iron is absent. According to the researches of Lunge and Keler, the aluminium sulphate used for dyeing alizarine red should not contain more than 0.001 per cent. of Fe. For the preparation of a 6° B. aluminium acetate for alizarine steam red, the aluminium sulphate may contain up to 0.005 per cent. of Fe without any ill effect on the colour.

The most important salt of alumina is alum ($\text{Al}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3 \cdot \text{K}_2\text{SO}_4 \cdot 24\text{H}_2\text{O}$), which is used both *per se* and in the preparation of other alumina mordants. Its active constituent is aluminium sulphate, the potassium sulphate playing no important part. Hence aluminium sulphate can also be used as a mordant, and, indeed, is preferable, inasmuch as it can now be obtained at a relatively lower rate, in comparison with the percentage content of alumina present, than alum. The latter continues to be used, however, in many places, its crystalline form being considered to afford a better guarantee of purity. Nevertheless, the commercial sulphate in lumps is also, for the most part, free from iron, but, its composition being irregular, needs checking by analysis.

Alum and aluminium sulphate are the only alumina mordants used for wool. The quantity of alum taken varies from 6 to 12 per cent., according to the nature and intensity of the dyeing, and it is employed in conjunction with 2–5 per cent. of potassium bitartrate or oxalic acid and a 30–40-fold quantity of water; the above percentages being calculated to the weight of wool under treatment.

Alum, as such, is unsuitable for mordanting silk and cotton, its sulphuric acid preventing the fixation of the hydroxide, unless previously neutralised, to some extent, by an alkali. A partly neutralised alum solution of this kind is known in practice under the name “basic alum,” the assumption being that it contains a basic salt of alumina. Thus, for example, if one molecule of sodium bicarbonate be taken to neutralise the sulphuric acid in one molecule of alum, the reaction ensuing may be expressed by the following equation:—



Here, as in other cases where a basic salt is formed in an analogous manner, the formula deduced for the resulting salt from the equation is hypothetical only, and expresses the degree of neutralisation produced by the alkali.

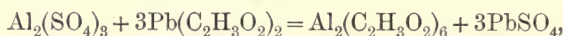
With regard to the production and behaviour of these basic salts in general, and not merely those of alumina, the following observations may be made:—In their preparation, the dissolved alkali—generally soda—is added by degrees to the solution of the salt to be rendered basic, and kept stirred, any resulting precipitate

being redissolved by warming. This, however, is not always possible. The more strongly basic the mordant, the more readily does it undergo dissociation into the corresponding hydroxide or allied insoluble salt. This dissociation is accelerated by heat and dilution. Both the different mordants and the various salts of one and the same metal behave in a very divergent manner under this treatment; moreover, the capacity for dissociation of basic salts is appreciably influenced by the presence of extraneous salts. For instance, the basic salts of alumina dissociate more readily when they contain potassium sulphate, so that the basic alumina mordants prepared from alum dissociate more readily than those obtained from aluminium sulphate.

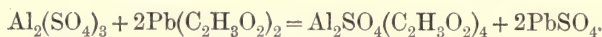
The alumina mordant for silk is prepared (according to the prescription of the Badische Anilin- und Sodafabrik) with a solution containing 60 grms. of alum and 6 grms. of soda crystals per litre.¹ After the addition of the alkali to the alum solution the liquid is warmed until the resulting precipitate has redissolved, whereupon the silk is entered in the bath, worked about for ten to fifteen minutes, and left in soak for at least twelve hours. It is then well wrung or drained in the hydro-extractor and entered in a bath of $\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ B. sodium silicate, worked about for a quarter of an hour, and carefully washed. The silicate treatment causes the deposition of aluminium hydroxide, and not aluminium silicate, on the fibre.

For mordanting cotton with alum, concentrated solutions are used, containing 100–200 grms. of aluminium sulphate per litre (10 to 20 per cent.), and are neutralised as far as possible with soda. Further particulars on this point will be given in treating of the fixing agents (fatty acids).

Aluminium acetate is prepared by dissolving aluminium hydroxide in acetic acid or by decomposing alum or aluminium sulphate with lead acetate. When three molecules of lead acetate are taken to one molecule of aluminium sulphate, normal aluminium acetate is produced—



but on lowering the proportion of lead acetate sulphacetates are formed—



For use as a mordant, it is unnecessary that the whole of the sulphuric acid present in aluminium sulphate should be thrown

¹ These proportions correspond to one molecule of sodium carbonate per three molecules of alum, and the resulting alumina salt will have the formula $\text{Al}_6(\text{SO}_4)_8(\text{OH})_2$. In making calculations of this kind, the water of crystallisation in the different substances must not be forgotten.

down; in fact, it is preferable in practice to select the proportions in the preparation of aluminium acetate so that a sulphacetate is produced instead of the normal acetate. Generally not more than a half to three-quarters of the total sulphuric acid is removed.

For use in calico-printing these mordant solutions are made as highly concentrated as possible, one method adopted being to dissolve the one salt and add the other in the condition of powder. For example, a 15° B. mordant can be obtained by dissolving 1 part by weight of aluminium sulphate and 1 part of lead acetate in 2 parts of water, this solution being diluted according to requirements, and occasionally rendered basic by an addition of chalk.

The various acetates may be diluted with water without undergoing dissociation; a few of them throw down a deposit when heated, but this is redissolved on cooling.

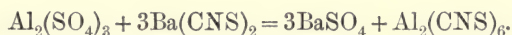
The aluminium acetate mordants are chiefly used in calico-printing, and also in piece dyeing cottons. For Turkey-red dyeing, solutions of 2–3° B. strength are used.

Silk can be mordanted with 6° B. aluminium acetate just as well as with basic alum.

In the case of wool these salts are not used as mordants, but are employed as waterproofing substances in the dressing process.

For dull colours the pure salt is replaced by the cheaper aluminium pyrolignite.

Aluminium sulphocyanide is prepared, by double decomposition, from alum or aluminium sulphate and barium or calcium sulphocyanide—



It is used to replace aluminium acetate for alizarine steam red in calico-printing, since it does not corrode the steel doctors of the printing machine and does not introduce iron into the printing colours. As, however, it readily corrodes cotton fibre when hot, the printed goods must be hung some time previous to steaming. The salt has no other uses.

Sodium aluminate ($\text{NaO} \cdot \text{AlO}$) is prepared by dissolving aluminium hydroxide in caustic soda and neutralising the excess of the latter. On account of its strongly alkaline reaction, this mordant can only be used for cotton, for which purpose it has several advantages over the other aluminium mordants. For instance, an alizarine red developed by its aid is less susceptible to the influence of iron and heat, and is easier to discharge. In mordanting cotton, the pieces are impregnated with a solution of sodium aluminate, dried, and passed through a warm solution of ammonium chloride (sal

ammoniac), whereby aluminium hydroxide is precipitated on the fibre. It is used for Turkey-red in the Schlieper and Baum method—though then fixed in a different manner—and also as an adjunct to naphthol preparations for nitraniline red, as well as being employed as a reserve under aniline black.

Aluminium fluoride forms a good mordant for wool, the colours being brighter than with alum; it is not used, however, in practice.

Of the other salts of alumina only the nitrate, chloride, and chlorate need be mentioned. These are used in calico-printing, the nitrate sometimes for alizarine steam red, the other two for red discharge on vat blue with alizarine. Aluminium chloride is also used in carbonising (*q.v.*).

Iron Mordants.—These play a most important part in black dyeing all three fibres with logwood; they are also used for dyeing wool brown with dye-woods, and on cotton for catechu and several alizarine dyes, for alizarine violet in calico-printing, for green with nitroso dyes, for Berlin-blue and chamois on cotton, and for darkening sundry tannin dyeings. The salts used as mordants are ferrous sulphate (green vitriol), iron pyrolignite, and so-called iron nitrate.

Ferrous sulphate and "Salzburg vitriol" (a mixture of ferrous sulphate and copper sulphate) are the only iron compounds used for mordanting wool. When the dyeing is for logwood black, a preliminary mordanting is given; in other cases the darkening method is practised. (*See Dyeing.*)

On cotton, ferrous sulphate is fixed on the fibre by means of tannic acid (*q.v.*); it is no longer in use for silk, except sometimes for black.

Finally, this salt is also used as a reducing agent in the so-called vitriol vat.

Iron pyrolignite is prepared by dissolving scrap iron in crude pyroligneous acid, and forms the most important and almost the sole iron mordant for calico-printing. In cotton-dyeing it is used according to the two methods already described, the solution employed for dark colours being only a few degrees B. in strength.

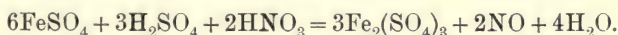
The chief constituent of iron pyrolignite is ferrous acetate, which, however, in the pure state is not a good mordant for cotton, being too readily oxidisable, and consequently poorly fixed on the fibre. The pyrolignite, on the other hand, forms a good mordant owing to the presence of other matters which retard the oxidation of the acetate. With the same object, and also to retard the fixation of the hydroxide, it is customary to add a solution of arsenic in acetic acid. Sometimes, however, *e.g.* for pale chamois (and also for alizarine violet), pure ferrous acetate, prepared from

ferrous sulphate and lead acetate, is employed; this product frequently contains an excess of lead acetate, which then comes down as lead hydroxide in with the iron chamois and lightens the shade.

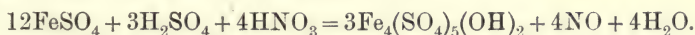
When iron pyrolignite is used for mordanting piece cottons along with aluminium acetate, the latter should be as free as possible from sulphuric acid, since otherwise ferrous sulphate will be formed, and this is difficult to fix. In silk-dyeing, the pyrolignite is used for black, and is fixed with tannic acid (*q.v.*). For wool, it is used only in the case of pelts, etc., that are mordanted cold.

Iron nitrate is the name given to a class of mordants produced by the action of nitric and sulphuric acids in variable quantities on ferrous sulphate, and consisting of a mixture of neutral and basic ferric sulphates and ferric nitro-sulphates.

The following proportions of the said reagents are used in the preparation of normal ferric sulphate:—



By using less sulphuric acid, *e.g.* only half the above quantity, a basic ferric sulphate is obtained—



By employing more nitric acid, nitro-sulphates are produced.

In reality these mordants do not contain any nitrates, and the term by which they are known is therefore inaccurate. They are put on the market in the form of reddish brown concentrated solutions, frequently containing free nitric acid.

The fixation of these mordants on the cotton fibre is effected by the aid of tannic acid, as in the case of iron pyrolignite. Their principal application is in the black dyeing of silk, for which purpose a mordant is prepared, the composition of which nearly corresponds to the formula in the above equation, viz. $\text{Fe}_4(\text{SO}_4)_5(\text{OH})_2$, and which is known as "Rouil mordant." The method of use differs according as the silk is in the raw, souple, or scoured state. The last named is mordanted in the following manner:—

The silk is immersed in a 30° B. solution of the mordant for about an hour, after which it is taken out, unwound, and carefully washed, preferably in hard running water.

These operations are usually repeated several times over, the final fixation of the mordant being effected in a boiling hot soap bath. The mordanted silk must not be allowed to dry, or it will be corroded by the mordant. Raw and souple silk are mordanted in a weaker solution, and, for the sake of cheapness, the fixing is generally performed with soda instead of soap.

Chrome Mordants.—At the present time the chrome mordants are the most important in use, many dyeings formerly mordanted with alumina or iron salts being now treated with chrome salts instead; and, with the exception of a few of the alizarine dyes, all artificial mordant dye-stuffs are fixed with chrome mordants exclusively. Their chief use is in the fast dyeing of wool.

These mordants differ greatly in behaviour from the iron and alumina mordants, being, on the one hand, more difficult of dissociation, and therefore harder to fix on the fibre, whilst, on the other hand, the combination of the fixed chromium hydroxide—*i.e.* the formation of the colour lake—is effected more readily. As regards the first-named property, this comes in evidence already during the treatment of the solution with alkaline substances, the quantitative precipitation of the hydroxide generally requiring the temperature of boiling-heat for its accomplishment, a property that is termed “passivity towards precipitants.” In the case of the iron and alumina mordants, the acetates give up the hydroxide more readily than the sulphates, the converse being, however, the case here. The chromium acetates are so difficult to decompose that they cannot be used like the acetates of alumina and iron.

A further peculiarity of the chromium salts is that they exist in two modifications, one violet and the other green, which differ in their behaviour towards precipitants and also in mordanting. It is assumed that the violet solutions are neutral salts, whilst the green solutions contain a mixture of acid and basic salts. The transference of the one modification into the other is an easy matter.

The aforesaid passivity towards precipitants was for a long time a hindrance to the employment of the chromium salts as mordants for cotton.

The chrome mordants consist of the following salts:—Chromium acetate, bisulphite, fluoride, basic chloride, alkaline chrome solutions, potassium and sodium bichromate, and chromic chromate. Unlike the corresponding salts of iron and alumina, chromium sulphate and chrome alum are unsuitable for mordanting wool, the dyeing being irregular unless plenty of potassium bitartrate is used as well. Chrome alum, a cheap by-product of alizarine manufacture, forms a raw material for the production of other chromium salts.

Chromium acetate is produced, by double decomposition, from chrome alum and lead acetate. As was the case with aluminium acetate, the product is not the normal acetate but a sulphacetate, and only about one-half to two-thirds of the sulphuric acid present in the chromium sulphate is precipitated. These compounds are almost exclusively used as chrome mordants for steam dyes in calico-printing; for mordanting cotton their use is restricted to piece goods.

The above-mentioned properties of the chromium salts are exhibited in a high degree by the various chromium acetates. The green solutions undergo gradual conversion into the violet form, the latter being more difficult to decompose. The behaviour of these salts, therefore, alters during storage; they have also the property of dissolving lead sulphate, this power increasing with their basicity.

Similar behaviour is exhibited by the chromium sulphocyanides, which, however, are rarely used (in calico-printing) as mordants.

Chromium bisulphite is prepared by treating a solution of chrome alum with an excess of sodium bisulphite or calcium bisulphite, and is used in mordanting cotton piece goods, for which purpose it is the most suitable of any of the chrome mordants.

Chromium fluoride, like the bisulphite, has only recently been introduced into practice as a mordant, and is now highly esteemed for treating wool, being especially valuable in cases where the oxidising action of potassium bichromate renders this latter unsuitable. An additional advantage of the fluoride is that it mordants the wool fibres in a very ready and uniform manner, without affecting their spinning properties or the feel of the resulting goods. It is used both for mordanting before dyeing and for after chroming (*see* Mordant Dye-Stuffs), the mordanting bath in the former case consisting of 4 per cent. of chromium fluoride and 1–2 per cent. of oxalic acid (counted on the weight of the goods), and the operation being performed in the same manner as for wool in general.

Chromium fluoride corrodes both glass and metals, and must therefore be stored in wooden vessels. When employed in copper dye vats, its action on that metal may be prevented by hanging strips of sheet zinc in the vessel.

A basic chromium chloride may be prepared by dissolving chromium hydroxide in chromium chloride, and is used for mordanting silk and cotton yarns. In mordanting silk (according to the recipe of the Badische Anilin- und Sodafabrik) the goods are immersed for six hours in a 20° B. solution of chromium chloride, then washed in plenty of water, treated in a cold bath of 1° B. sodium silicate for a quarter of an hour, unrolled, and carefully washed.

The mordanting of cotton yarn with this reagent is effected in two ways—in one, the yarn is impregnated with the mordant solution, dried, and passed through a boiling hot solution of soda; whilst in the other, the hydroxide is fixed by the aid of tannic acid or oleic acid. (*See* Fixing Agents.)

Alkaline chrome solutions are obtained by dissolving chromium

hydroxide in caustic soda, or by treating a dissolved chromium salt with sufficient caustic soda to redissolve the precipitate first formed. On account of their strongly alkaline reaction, their use is restricted to cotton. This fibre is mordanted by impregnating it with a solution of this kind and leaving it to stand for twenty-four hours, finally washing with water to get rid of the excess of the solution.

Potassium bichromate, often called "chromate of potash," is the most important of all the chromium salts, and plays a great part in the dyeing and printing of fabrics, its applications being many and varied. As a mordant its employment is restricted to wool, for which it forms the principal reagent of this class.

The chroming of wool has been the subject of considerable study, the results obtained being as follows:—If wool be mordanted by bichromate alone, the material absorbs chromic acid, leaving a normal chromate behind in the bath. Since the composition $K_2CrO_4 + CrO_3$ must be ascribed to the bichromate in aqueous solution, the wool apparently takes up only the free chromic acid present, and therefore it is usual to increase the activity of the bath by an addition of sulphuric acid, which liberates chromic acid from the normal chromate, this extra acid being then absorbed by the wool: $K_2CrO_4 + H_2SO_4 = CrO_3 + K_2SO_4 + H_2O$.

Thus rather less than 1 part by weight of sulphuric acid is required (theoretically) for 3 parts of bichromate; and this proportion is employed in practice, inasmuch as the solution used contains 3 per cent. of bichromate and $\frac{1}{2}$ –1 per cent. of sulphuric acid (calculated on the weight of wool) with a 30–40-fold quantity of water. For very dark shades—especially when dyeing with polyoxyanthraquinone dyes (alizarine cyanines, etc.)— $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of bichromate and $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of sulphuric acid are used. The bath is never exhausted, a considerable quantity of chrome being left behind.

The precise form in which the chromic acid is contained in the wool is unknown, but, from the yellow colour of the mordanted fibre, it is assumed that a portion of the acid is in the free state. On prolonged storage, especially exposed to light, an appreciable reduction to chromic oxide occurs, and this circumstance may lead to subsequent irregularity in dyeing.

It is assumed that the mordanting action of the chromic acid is confined to the portion reduced to the state of chromic oxide by the wool and the dye-stuff.

The method described is but seldom advantageous, more handsome colours being obtained when the sulphuric acid is replaced by potassium bitartrate or oxalic acid. In such event, as may be concluded from the green colour of the mordanted wool, a much

more extensive reduction of the chromic acid to chromium hydroxide occurs; and that this is actually the principal effect of these adjuncts is evident from the fact that these two reagents may be successfully replaced by other organic substances. Finally, mention may be made of the following fact:—When wool mordanted with bichromate and sulphuric acid is treated with a reducing agent, such as bisulphite, it turns green, and then gives the same results in dyeing as though mordanted with bichromate and bitartrate. For this purpose the wool may be treated with 5 per cent. of commercial bisulphite solution for ten to fifteen minutes in a lukewarm bath.

The circumstance that wool mordanted with bichromate and sulphuric acid generally furnishes dull colours may be explained by the assumption that the chromic acid oxidises a portion of the dyestuff to discoloured products.

The adjuncts, bitartrate and oxalic acid, do not behave alike, the former usually giving purer colours than the latter, and being therefore more often used, notwithstanding its higher price. A purer, semi-crystal form of the bitartrate is employed for specially brilliant shades. The mordant for dark tones consists of 4 per cent. of potassium bichromate and 3 per cent. of bitartrate, whilst for lighter shades 1 per cent. of each is taken.

In some cases the other adjuncts to the chrome bath are equal, and even superior, to bitartrate; thus, in mordanting hat bodies for light shades, oxalic acid is preferable on account of its cleansing properties; for dark shades with alizarine red and alizarine orange, sulphuric acid is the best adjunct to the bath, as giving very fast colours to milling.

Latterly, the use of a concentrated solution of lactic acid has been warmly recommended in many quarters as a substitute for bitartrate, and in fact it is both well adapted for this purpose and cheap. According to C. H. Boehringer's recipe, the mordanting bath in this case consists of $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of bichromate, 3 per cent. of lactic acid, and 1 per cent. of sulphuric acid.

A consideration of some practical importance is the fact that light shades are rendered faster towards light when mordanted with chromium fluoride than with bichromate and one of the above adjuncts. The only explanation of this is by the assumption that wool mordanted with bichromate always retains part of the chrome as chromic acid, which then acts destructively on the dye in presence of light.

Bichromate is an important agent in cotton-dyeing and calico-printing; it is used as an oxidising agent for aniline black, for catechu dyeing, to improve the fixing of certain tannin dyeings,

as a discharge for vat blue, and finally for the production of chrome yellow and orange on the fibre.

Sodium bichromate is very similar to the potassium salt, from which it differs only in its hygroscopicity, ready solubility, and cheapness; it may therefore advantageously replace potassium bichromate. According to E. Knecht, the only instance in which the behaviour of the two is different is in the mordanting of wool. The commercial grade of this salt is of variable composition, and should therefore always be checked by analysis.

Chromic chromates are put on the market in three marks—GA I, GA II, GA III—by the Höchst Farbwerke, the two first grades being suitable for mordanting cotton by the following method:—Before use, the mark GA I is diluted with 2–4 parts of water, the goods being then immersed for twelve to twenty-four minutes, and carefully washed with water. Before rinsing, it is advisable to treat them with a weak ($\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.) solution of soda for twenty to thirty minutes at 60° C. Piece goods are impregnated with the solution by padding, then wound on a roller and left covered up, the remainder of the treatment being as already described.

The GA II mordant can be fixed on the fibre by a gentle steaming or hanging in the oxidising chamber, and is better adapted for piece goods. The mordant is diluted with four times its own volume of water, and receives an addition of 8 to 10 per. cent its volume of glycerine; in this solution the goods are padded, then steamed for ten to twenty minutes without pressure, and finally treated as in the preceding case. Both these mordants are sensitive to light, a circumstance that should be borne in mind when they are being used.

Finally, the mark GA III is recommended for wool-printing and for mordanting silk, the latter being steeped for twelve to twenty-four hours in the mordant solution—previously diluted with about four volumes of water—and washed after lifting.

Tin Mordants.—As independent mordants the tin compounds are of inferior importance; they are used for producing bright yellows with natural dye-stuffs, for cochineal scarlet on wool, to improve the brightness of alizarine red on cotton, and for a fast acid red with santal-wood on cotton (in mixed wool and cotton goods). The chief of these salts are the chlorides—stannous chloride or “salts of tin,” and stannic chloride—and sodium stannate.

Stannous chloride is the most important mordant for wool. The bath is prepared with $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 4 per cent. of stannous chloride and 2 to 4 of oxalic acid or bitartrate, and the operation is generally conducted by the single bath method. The use of tin

mordants, however, lowers the capacity of the dyes for resisting the action of the milling process.

In the case of silk, stannous chloride is used, not for mordanting, but for loading the fibre in black dyeing with cutch (catechu); whilst for cotton it is employed to brighten the colour in Turkey-red dyeing.

By reason of its reducing action, stannous chloride forms an important discharge in calico-printing. It is also used in the production of the so-called "carmines," *i.e.* colour lakes prepared by precipitating dye-wood extracts with stannous chloride.

A certain amount of care is required in dissolving this salt in water, owing to its tendency to separate out, in part, in the form of an insoluble basic salt (SnOHCl). The best way is to dissolve in a minimum of water and hydrochloric acid, in an atmosphere of carbon dioxide.

Stannic chloride (tetrachloride) is the chief tin mordant for cotton and silk. On cotton it is fixed by the aid of tannic acid (*q.v.*). The method of mordanting silk with this salt—though seldom used—is as follows:—The silk is steeped for one hour in a clear 32° B. solution of stannic chloride, after which it is well washed with water and treated in a hot bath of soap and soda—or of the latter alone, according to the quality of the silk,—followed by another washing. Stannic chloride is very largely used for loading white or light-coloured silks. The method formerly adopted was that just described for mordanting with tin, but this has now been generally superseded by the following, which enables a heavier loading to be obtained. The silk, after passing the tin bath and the subsequent washing, is immersed in two baths at 50° C.—one hour in each—the first consisting of an 8° B. solution of sodium phosphate, the second of a 6° B. solution of sodium silicate. By this means the weight of the silk is increased by 18 to 20 per cent., or still more if the operation be repeated. Any stains produced in the silicate bath may be removed by ammonia. The tin escaping in the washing water may be recovered by precipitation with lime.

Formerly the so-called "pink salt" ($\text{SnCl}_4 \cdot 2\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$) was largely used for the same purposes as stannic chloride. A crystallised chloride ($\text{SnCl}_4 \cdot 5\text{H}_2\text{O}$) is also sold under the above title.

Sodium stannate is frequently styled "preparing salt," owing to its employment in preparing fabrics for printing. Its chief use is in printing woollens, its employment for cottons being now mainly confined to the so-called "Luccas."

Jute, also, is often prepared for printing by the aid of sodium stannate, the fabric being first padded with a weak solution of this salt (then dried, in the case of vegetable fibres), and then passed

through dilute sulphuric acid, which precipitates stannic acid on the fibre; the process concludes with a thorough washing.

Sodium stannate is often used to brighten the colours in Turkey-red dyeing.

Various tin mordants, formerly playing an important part in dyeing,—under the name of “tin solution,”—can be obtained by dissolving tin in different proportions of nitric and hydrochloric acid. At present only one of these is used to any extent (for producing cochineal scarlet on wool), viz. the so-called “scarlet acid.” This is prepared in various ways, the following recipe, however, giving a mordant that produces an excellent scarlet:—16 parts by weight of tin are dissolved in 50 parts of nitric acid, 15 parts of hydrochloric acid, and 78 parts of water, the metal being added by degrees. As considerable heat is evolved by the reaction, the mixture will require to be cooled when prepared in the summer.

Of the other compounds of tin, the following find a limited application in calico-printing as adjuncts for steam alizarine red, in order to enliven the colour and protect it against the dulling effect of iron:—Tin hydroxide, in the form of “tin paste” (prepared from stannic chloride and soda); tin sulphocyanide; tin acetate (prepared from stannous chloride and lead acetate, or by dissolving stannous hydroxide in acetic acid); and tin oxalate (by dissolving stannic hydroxide in oxalic acid).

Copper Mordants.—These mordants play a small but important part in dyeing, their colour lakes being extremely fast, if not particularly handsome. At present copper mordants are rarely used alone, but are mostly associated with iron or chrome mordants in black-dyeing wool and cotton, in dyeing cotton with cutch, and for a few single-bath brown-dyeings with natural dye-stuffs on wool. In some of these cases, *e.g.* cutch, they act not merely as a mordant, but also as an oxidising agent.

Copper sulphate, or blue vitriol, is the only copper salt employed for the above purposes. In dyeing with aniline black, and as a reserve under vat blue, it acts solely as an oxidising agent; finally, it also serves for “coppering” with many substantive dyes, in order to increase their fastness to light; its action in this connection has not been elucidated.

Of the other copper compounds, the sulphide is used as a carrier of oxygen in dyeing with aniline black.

Amongst other metals, mention may be made of zinc, nickel, lead, manganese, lime, and magnesia. Zinc gives good colour lakes with a number of dye-stuffs, but the only form in which it is used

in practice is as zinc sulphite for alizarine steam blue in calico-printing, in which case it furnishes a handsomer though less stable colour than is obtainable with chrome mordants.

The salts of nickel have several times been proposed as mordants for alizarine, but their high price has hitherto hindered their use.

Lead was in use for some time in fixing eosine dyes on cotton, but does not give very good lakes, and at the present time only the acetate is of practical importance, this salt being employed in the preparation of other acetates, for chrome yellow and orange, and as an adjunct to reserves under vat blue.

The supplementary mordants already referred to comprise salts of lime, magnesia, manganese, and zinc. In some dyeings—alizarine red, for instance—lime in particular plays an important part, its presence being essential to the mutual combination of the alizarine and the alumina. In other cases, *e.g.* many steam dyes in calico-printing, the supplementary mordants serve to increase the fastness of the colours produced by the aid of other mordants. They are used in the form of acetates.

Manganese salts are used solely in the production of a brown colour, manganese bistre. Finally, in the form of potassium permanganate, this metal finds employment as a bleaching agent.

THE FIXING AGENTS (ACID MORDANTS).

I. The Tannic Acids. II. The Oleic Acids.

A whole series of bodies, such as tannic acids, many oleic acids, albumin, precipitated silica, etc., have the property of fixing a certain class of dye-stuffs on cotton, for which they otherwise have but a slight affinity. Of the foregoing substances only the first three are of any practical importance, and one of them, albumin, will be described later, its use being restricted to calico-printing.

The tannic acids and some oleic acids play a very important rôle in the dyeing and printing of cotton, where they are used for fixing basic dyes and mordants. Their mode of action is only partly understood, though the formation of an insoluble tannic or fatty acid compound of the metal must be assumed when a metallic oxide is fixed by the aid of a tannic acid or a fatty acid. However, in the case of fixing basic dyes, no chemical combination between the colour base and the tannic or oleic acid is probable. At all events, the part they play is not so important as that of the mordants in the case of the adjective dyes, and for this reason they have received the distinctive title of "fixing agents," though some

colour chemists, in the assumption that a combination occurs between the colour base and the tannic or oleic acid, class them as "acid mordants."

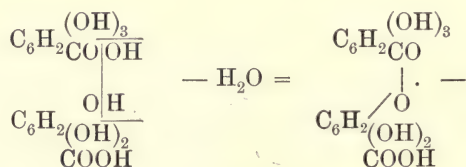
1. The Tannic Acids.

The vegetable kingdom furnishes a number of substances possessing very similar properties. They have an acid character, and act as precipitants of egg albumin, gelatin, alkaloids, etc. A few of them are used for tanning leather, on which account they have received the group name of "tannins" or "tannic acids."

The chief tanning materials are oak bark, gall nuts, cutch, sumach, chestnuts, myrabolans, divi-divi, etc.

Gall nuts are diseased excrescences produced on various plants, notably the oak tree, by insect punctures. They furnish the best known and, for the dyer's purpose, the most important of the tannic acids, viz. tannin, which is obtained by extraction with water, alcohol, and ether. The tannin is chiefly in the aqueous extract, and is recovered by evaporation. On evaporating to dryness a solution of tannin, to which alcohol and ether have been added, in slowly thickening liquid froths up under the influence of the escaping vapour and finally leaves a very loose mass, which comes into commerce as powdered tannin, and is held in high esteem on account of its ready solubility in water. "Tannin in needles" is the commercial crystalline form, and is prepared by evaporating to syrupy consistence a solution of tannin, drawing it out into threads, drying these on heated metal drums, and finally comminuting the product.

Gallotannic acid contains as its most active ingredient a digallic acid, resulting from the condensation of two molecules of gallic acid, the condensation being assumed to proceed on the following lines:—



Cutch, or catechu, is employed as a dye-stuff and tanning material.

Sumach is composed of the leaves and twigs of a shrub of the *Rhus* family, the best quality being furnished by *Rhus coriaria* (Sicily, Spain, the Balkans, etc.). Latterly it has also been sold in the form of a 30° B. extract. It contains gallotanic acid.

Chestnut extract is obtained from the wood of the horse-chestnut.

Myrabolans are the fruit of various trees (*Myrabolanus chebula*, etc.) occurring in China and the East Indies.

Divi-divi is the name given to the fruit of *Caesalpinia coriaria*, Willd., found in the West Indies and South America.

Of all these substances the most important for the dyer are tannin, sumach, and cutch; of the rest, chestnut extract is principally used in black-dyeing silk.

All tanning materials exhibit a tendency to turn, on oxidation, into yellow or brown dye-stuffs, which have an affinity for cellulose. They are all therefore more or less strongly coloured, except tannin, which can be prepared quite colourless, and is therefore the only one that is suitable to use for light and bright shades. Of late, however, a decolorised sumach extract has been put on the market, and is adapted to replace tannin in most cases.

When exposed to the air, dilute solutions of tanning materials oxidise and deposit a brown precipitate, and therefore should not be kept stored.

In working with tannic acids, care should be taken to keep them out of contact with iron, since they form a dark-coloured compound with that metal.

Application of Tannic Acids to Cotton.

The employment of these substances in cotton-dyeing is principally based on their absorption by this fibre. On cotton being immersed in an aqueous solution of tannin, a portion of the tannic acid is gradually and uniformly taken up by the fibre. After some time the absorption ceases, a state of equilibrium then existing in respect of the distribution of the tannic acid between the water and the fibre. In any case, the amount absorbed is only very small, the absorption being least at boiling-heat, and most at a not very precisely determined medium temperature of about 40° C.

Other factors influencing the absorption are—the quantity of water, tannic acid, and cotton present, the influence being exerted in a very regular manner, which is quite analogous to the absorption of dye-stuffs by textile fibres, and in accordance with the law of distribution, which will be more fully discussed in dealing with the theory of dyeing. The higher the proportion of tannic acid and the lower that of water taken, in comparison with the amount of cotton present, the larger the quantity of tannic acid absorbed. The necessary consequence of this behaviour is, that the fixing

baths must contain as little water as is compatible with the dissolving of the tannin or sumach.

If the cotton be washed with a large volume of water after passing through the tannin bath, nearly all the absorbed tannic acid will be driven out again, and consequently no more than a gentle rinsing is permissible.

Cotton treated with tannin is then capable of fixing basic dye-stuffs, inasmuch as it takes up the colour base and leaves the acid behind in the bath. Both these dyeings and the precipitates ensuing, on treating the corresponding dye-stuff solutions with tannin, are soluble in water as well as in an excess of tannic acid; consequently, the tannic acid salts of the colour bases cannot be fixed on the fibre. However, if the cotton be treated in a solution of a metallic salt after passing the tannin bath, there is formed an insoluble metallic tannate, firmly adherent to the fibre, and far more capable than free tannic acid of absorbing basic dyes from solution, and fixing them so as to stand washing. Whether under these conditions there occurs any chemical combination with the tannic acid attached to the metallic oxide is unknown, and is, moreover, improbable, since the absorption of the colour bases goes on with great readiness, even at the ordinary temperature.

This important method of fixing basic dyes on cotton was discovered by John Dale and Thomas Brooke in the "sixties." It is generally effected by the aid of tartar emetic as the metallic salt, the operation being performed in the following manner:—The cotton yarn is first well damped with hot water, and then left overnight in a hot solution of tannin or sumach, the amount of tannin varying—according to the depth of colour in view and the nature of the dye-stuff to be used—within somewhat wide limits: about 1–10 per cent. of the weight of the yarn, the usual amount being 2–4 per cent. For darker shades sumach is used; and it may be taken for granted that 3–4 parts, by weight, of sumach extract are equal to 1 part of tannin. Sufficient water should be used to just cover the yarn, and a hot bath has the advantage of expelling all the air out of the material, and thus facilitating impregnation. Moreover, in this case the gradual cooling of the bath during its sojourn overnight will enable it to retain for a longer period the medium temperature already mentioned as the most favourable for the absorption of tannic acid by cotton.

After the cotton is taken out of the bath, it is well drained, and is then worked about in a bath containing, on the average, 1–2 per cent. of tartar emetic, *i.e.* about half the weight of the tannin used, and is finally washed with care. According to results obtained by Falke, only $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of tartar emetic is required to fix 2 per

cent. of tannin, and only 1 per cent. to fix 6 per cent. of tannin, thus showing that a large excess of tartar emetic is used in practice. This is, however, no particular drawback, as it ensures the thorough fixation of the tannin; and as the tartar emetic bath is used over and over again, there is no waste of antimony.

After a slight tannin treatment, the cotton is only left in the tartar emetic bath for about ten minutes, the time being increased from a quarter to half an hour when a stronger tannin bath has been used. The rapidity of the fixing process is in direct ratio to the concentration of the tartar emetic solution.

Cotton piece goods should not be left to stand in the tannin solution, but are wound through a 5–20 per mil. solution of tannin by means of a jigger (*q.v.*) for some time, and then treated in the same way in a strong solution of tartar emetic; or the pieces are drawn through a warm concentrated solution of tannin, then wound up on a roller, left to stand for one to two hours, and fixed in the same manner as before.

Although the process of fixing with tannin and tartar emetic has been known and practised in various ways for a long time, some uncertainty still prevails as to the best temperature for the tannin bath, and the time required for arriving at the state of equilibrium in the distribution of the tannic acid between the fibre and the water. The tartar bath is used cold, lukewarm, and hot, and equal uncertainty prevails as to the best temperature for the formation of the antimony tannate, and the amount of tannin to be brought on the fibre, in any given instance. Weber, it is true, elaborated a method for estimating the amount of tannin required to ensure the complete precipitation of the different basic dyes from solution; but the method itself is difficult of performance, and, besides, necessitates the previous determination, in each case, of the amount of tannic acid taken up by the cotton.

Since the badly fixed dyeings with basic dyes on cotton are of very low stability, it is always well to use more tannin and antimony than are absolutely needed, the baths being used again. In the case of the tannin bath, the liquor may be recuperated by adding a very small fraction of the original charge, the quantity absorbed being so small. The tartar emetic bath should always contain a readily detectable amount of antimony, and be free from acidity and dirt. The water used for dissolving the tartar emetic should be pure. Acidity in this bath is the result of an accumulation of potassium acid tartrate, owing to the absorption of the antimony by the cotton. It may be neutralised by an addition of chalk, which is preferable, for this and similar purposes, to any other alkaline substance, inasmuch as it dissolves only just in the

same proportion as the acid salt is formed. Old tartar emetic baths contaminated with dissolved dye-stuffs must be clarified by settling or filtration before use again.

The tannin and antimony fixing process has not suffered much alteration since its first introduction. Other organic acids, *e.g.* benzoic acid and phthalic acid, are able to fix basic dyes on cotton; but the colours obtained are deficient in fastness, though handsome, so that none of these substances has found any practical application. For some time zinc sulphate was used to replace tartar emetic in fixing tannin; but the colours were less fast, and, indeed, no other metal is as good as antimony for this purpose. Other antimony compounds equally as suitable as tartar emetic are—antimony hydroxide, potassium-antimony oxalate, and antimony fluoride, in the form of double salts, etc., which have been frequently recommended as “tartar emetic substitutes,” and employed as such.

Antimonyl potassium oxalate ($\text{SbK}_3(\text{C}_2\text{H}_4)_3 \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$) may be used to replace tartar emetic, weight for weight, notwithstanding its far smaller percentage of antimony; and, being readily soluble, is also suitable for reserves under basic dyes.

The introducers of the last-named salt (Koepp & Co., of Oestrich-on-Rhine) have also put on the market a double fluoride of antimony and sodium ($\text{SbF}_3 \cdot \text{NaF}$) as a substitute for tartar emetic; 658 parts by weight of the new salt being equivalent to 1000 parts of the old.

The “antimony salt” of E. de Haen (List, near Hanover) corresponds to the formula $\text{SbF}_3 \cdot (\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$, and 9 parts are equivalent to 10 parts of tartar emetic.

The double fluorides of antimony are strongly acid, and must therefore be neutralised before use.

The property of tannic acid for forming, with the metallic mordants, insoluble salts that adhere to the fibre of cotton renders it very valuable as a fixing agent for mordants, the method of application being to first treat the cotton in a bath of tannin or sumach and then in a cold solution of the mordant used. Iron, tin, and alumina are fixed on the fibre in this manner, the method being chiefly valuable for yarn-dyeing.

For fixing iron, the following procedure is adopted:—The cotton, after being treated with sumach, is passed through lime-water and then immersed in the iron mordant solution for a quarter of an hour to an hour, according to the amount of sumach used, the process concluding with a washing, preferably in hard water or water containing chalk, to neutralise the acid. The lime bath treatment produces calcium tannate, the neutralisation of the acid thus facilitating the formation of iron tannate in the subsequent iron

mordant bath. The method is modified in various ways, the lime-water treatment sometimes following the iron bath, whilst in other cases chalk is added to the iron bath itself. The iron mordants used for this purpose are—ferrous sulphate, pyrolignite, and nitrate, a few degrees Baumé in strength. As iron tannate is of a greyish colour, the cotton treated in this way will also be grey or black, which is the reason why the use of iron in this connection is restricted to the production of dark shades. Blues fixed with tannic acid and antimony are often passed through an iron solution when required to be darkened. Iron tannate is also employed as an independent dye, an iron-grey of this kind being produced in yarns, notwithstanding that it hardens the fibre. The only use for iron, fixed with tannic acid, as a mordant is in black-dyeing.

For mordanting with tin, the cotton after passing through the tannin bath is treated for about half an hour in a cold solution of stannic chloride (2–5° B. strength) and then washed with water containing lime.

As a fixing agent for alumina the sole use made of tannic acid is in Turkey-red dyeing (*q.v.*), where it is employed to make the colour lake faster.

Application of Tannic Acid to Silk.

In silk-dyeing, tannic acid is used for loading the fibre, fixing the iron, and solidifying the colour.

Except in the case of light shades, the loading of silk by tannic acid is effected solely by the aid of sumach extract or chestnut extract. Some prefer to load after dyeing, but generally the loading and dyeing are combined in the same bath. The most favourable temperature for the absorption of tannic acid by silk is about 70° C.

For ordinary black-dyeing on silk (*q.v.*) the tannic acid is supplied by catechu, which serves both as a loading material and as a fixing agent for the iron. Souple silk is often loaded, and simultaneously mordanted with iron, by alternate treatment with a solution of tannin (principally chestnut extract) and a bath of iron pyrolignite. After the iron bath the silk is exposed to the air for a short time (about half an hour) in order to oxidise the ferrous tannate. The treatment with tannin and iron is often several times repeated, the strength of the later tannin baths being increased, and the operation being concluded with a washing in hard water. After repeated use the iron baths become acid through the liberation of pyroligneous acid, which is then neutralised by an addition of iron filings enclosed in a bag.

The solidifying process is employed to improve the fastness of the dye, and is performed by immersing the dyed silk in a lukewarm 8 per cent. tannin bath until the latter has become cold, whereupon the silk is washed, passed through a 4 per cent. bath of tartar emetic, again washed, and finally revived. (*See Dyeing.*)

In the case of wool the tannic acids are very little used, and then only in the form of sumach for a few single-bath dyeings with natural dyes. (*See Mordant Dyes.*)

2. The Oleic Acids.

These substances are almost exclusively used for cotton. The earliest application of fatty bodies in dyeing occurred in the Turkey-red industry, which, even at the present time, consumes large quantities, chiefly of the sulphonated "tournant" oil class, to perfect the fastness of the colour by fixing the alumina of the colour lake, etc. (*See Turkey-Red.*)

The so-called Turkey-red oil was first introduced about the middle of the nineteenth century. It is prepared by treating olive oil or castor oil (ricinus oil) with concentrated sulphuric acid, the proportions employed varying from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 4 parts of acid per 10 parts of oil, more acid being used in winter than in summer. The method of procedure is, however, the same all the year round, the acid being poured slowly into the oil, with constant stirring, and the whole then left to stand until a sample of the product is found to dissolve completely in water, whereupon the whole is poured into water and washed with a solution of common salt to remove the excess of sulphuric acid. The residual acid is neutralised with soda or ammonia.

While the acid and oil are being mixed, the temperature must be prevented from rising above 40° C., since otherwise the acid will exert an oxidising action, a condition revealed by the copious evolution of sulphur dioxide, in which case the product will be dark in colour and furnish poor results in dyeing.

Good Turkey-red oil should dissolve to an almost perfectly clear solution in water; any slight turbidity formed can be removed by the aid of ammonia.

As the name indicates, Turkey-red oil is mainly used in Turkey-red dyeing, where it serves to increase the brightness and fastness of the colour. Its composition formed the subject of numerous investigations by Liechi and Suida, Müller-Jacobs, P. Juillard, and many others, who devoted a great deal of attention to a thankless task in the hope of elucidating the process of Turkey-red dyeing. It is found that by the action of sulphuric acid on castor oil,

under the conditions prevailing in the production of Turkey-red oil, a large proportion of the oil is left unaltered, whilst another portion furnishes a sulphuricinoleic ester and ricinoleic acid; in addition, sulphonated glycerine ether and polymerised compounds (polyricinoleic acids) may also be formed, according to the conditions (temperature!) of the operation. These products, however, have little practical effect in Turkey-red dyeing.

This was first demonstrated by P. Lochtin, who obtained with an acid ammonium ricinoleate just as good a red as with Turkey-red oil. Similar "acid soaps," obtained by treating a dissolved soap with a quantity of acid just insufficient to produce separation of the fatty acids, are now largely used to replace Turkey-red oil; and it would seem that the practical value of the use of sulphuric acid in preparing Turkey-red oil from castor oil is confined to rendering the latter soluble.

Turkey-red oil forms a good fixing agent for mordants, but its practical application in this direction is confined to the fixing of alumina by various methods. For Turkey-red, for example, the fibre is first impregnated with a strong solution of Turkey-red oil (by the same appliances as were used in the old red-dyeing process), and then dried, the cotton being afterwards immersed for some time in a solution of basic alum or aluminium acetate, and finally washed with water containing chalk (to neutralise the acid), followed with pure water. Piece goods are left rolled up for some time after passing the alum bath, to facilitate the fixing of the aluminium fatty acid salt.

The fixing process is also effected in other ways, a solution of soap being frequently used in place of the Turkey-red oil; for instance, the cotton is steeped for several hours in a solution of basic alum, then lifted, drained, and treated with a hot soap solution, followed by washing, the whole procedure being repeated if necessary.

Turkey-red oil can also be used for fixing basic dyes on cotton, but the resulting colours are less stable, though more handsome, than those obtained by the tannin-antimony process. The goods may be impregnated with Turkey-red oil, and then dyed after drying; or, better still, the oil is fixed as above, with alumina. Practically, however, this method is only of value in the case of rhodamine, which dye-stuff gives only a dull lilac when fixed with tannin and antimony, but a beautiful rose-red when fixed with Turkey-red oil. In this special case the following method is adopted:—The cotton is first treated for ten minutes in a 10 per cent. solution of Turkey-red oil, and, after draining and drying at a moderate heat, is worked about several times in a 6° B. solution

of aluminium acetate (or aluminium sulphocyanide), followed by draining and drying. After rinsing, the mordanting operations are repeated in the same baths, and the goods slightly rinsed again, the dyeing being finished before they are allowed to dry.

Another very frequent use of Turkey-red oil is in the preparation of cotton piece goods for calico-printing (*q.v.*).

Application of Oleic Acids to Silk.

These substances are used for two purposes in silk-dyeing, viz. for brightening the colours and for softening the fibre.

In the first case use is made of an emulsion of olive oil or "tournant oil," more or less strongly acidified. (*See Acid Dye-Stuffs.*)

For softening purposes, especially in the case of "souple" silk, the so-called "*deux huiles*" (two oils) are used, consisting of a mixture of equal parts of sulphuric acid and olive oil. The acid is poured slowly into the oil, which is kept rapidly stirred, the mixture being diluted with warm water, when bubbles begin to form; and the silk is drawn through this bath for a short time, whereby it is immediately softened. The usual proportions are 2 per cent. of oil (calculated on the weight of the silk) and an equal quantity of acid. (*See also Application of Acid Dye-Stuffs to Silk.*)

CHAPTER IV

DYEING

FOR the sake of convenience, the diversified subject matter of this chapter has been divided as follows:—

- I. Theory of colour ; combination of colours ; dyeing to pattern.
- II. Theory of dyeing.
- III. Classification of the dye-stuffs ; methods of dyeing.
- IV. Dyeing textile fibres on the large scale.
- V. Trial dyeings ; colorimetric determinations ; reactions of dye-stuffs on the fibre ; tests for fastness.

I. Theory of Colour ; Combination of Colours ; Dyeing to Pattern.

It is usual to regard the *colour* of any substance as a special property of that substance, inherent to and dependent on its nature solely ; but what we are accustomed to call the true colour of any object depends not upon itself alone, but on the eye of the observer and on the light rays by which the object is illuminated. Colours have no real existence, but are mere subjective impressions that we receive from the light falling upon the object in question. It is more than probable that no two persons receive exactly the same impression from the observation of any colour, even though they employ the same word to express it.

This divergence in the vision of colours may extend to colour-blindness, or the incapacity for distinguishing between widely different colours—generally red and green. A still more important part in this connection is played by light, since the colour of any object is nothing more or less than that portion of the impinging light that is reflected by the object. The light we have solely to consider is that of the sun, which is composed of light rays of all colours. If this light be allowed to fall on a glass prism it will be analysed into its constituents, the various light rays undergoing different degrees of refraction, and in this manner we obtain a coloured strip containing all the colours present in sunlight, each

one separated from the others. These are known as "the colours of the spectrum," and if the same light rays be reunited we again obtain white light.

Again, certain colours of the spectrum will furnish white light if united in pairs; and such colours are termed "complementary colours," their arrangement being as follows:—

Red and bluish green.
 Orange and greenish blue.
 Yellow and blue.
 Greenish yellow and violet.
 Green and red violet.

White is therefore not a colour capable of physical definition, but is merely a mixture of sensations, a physiological phenomenon, caused by the incapacity of the human eye for analysing a mixture of various light rays as the ear distinguishes the several notes in a musical chord. This incapacity for distinguishing between simple and compound colours is not confined to white, but extends to all other colours as well, the eye receiving merely a total impression; in fact, so little is the organ in question capable of differentiating between colours simultaneously impressed on the retina, that the effect of a uniform colour can be produced by a skilful blending of several different colours, as is actually done in Parisian Gobelins fabrics.

Consequently when we speak of the true colour of an object, this term merely implies that the object has the property of absorbing all the rays in sunlight except those corresponding to the said true colour. For this reason it will appear of a different colour if illuminated by another kind of light. Thus, for example, a red object illuminated by a white light compounded of blue and yellow rays will absorb both these colours, and appear to be no longer red, but black.

The colours of all terrestrial objects, as also of all natural and artificial dye-stuffs, are neither so homogeneous nor so intense as the colours of the spectrum. For instance, there is no single red that—like the red of the solar spectrum—consists solely of this colour without any admixture of yellow or blue. Again, since such colours lack the intensity of those of the spectrum, their mixtures do not furnish a white—like the complementary colours of the spectrum—but a more or less dark grey.

Grey is therefore a white of low intensity; whilst, considered from a physical standpoint, black is not a colour at all, its intensity being *nil*. Therefore when we view a white surface the sensation of light is so intense that the formation of a clear conception thereof

becomes difficult, such an effect being unattainable by our natural and artificial dye-stuffs. A further consequence of this is that the dye-stuffs or any other coloured materials destroy more of the impinging light than pure white bodies. Hand in hand with this absorption of light proceeds the absorption of heat by the colour, a circumstance that may account for the known faculty possessed by the blind of distinguishing between colours by touch.

The comparative intensity of colours can be determined and expressed in numerical values by the aid of a very simple piece of apparatus. For this purpose a circular white disc is divided into four sectors, two of them being then painted a deep black, as shown in Fig. 25. On setting this disc in rapid rotation, the mixed impressions of black and white produces the sensation of grey, the intensity of which is evidently determined by the angle of the two white sectors. If we set down the intensity of white as 1 and that of black as zero, the grey resulting from the rotation of the disc in Fig. 25 will have the intensity $\frac{60}{360} = \frac{1}{6}$. To measure the

intensity of any colour, the two opposite sectors of a white disc are painted over with that colour, and the remainder of the disc painted with a complementary colour, the angles of the painted sectors being then varied until a grey is obtained on rotating the disc. By determining the intensity of this grey in the manner described above, we have a measure of the intensity of the two colours on the painted disc, when it is recalled that these intensities are inversely proportional

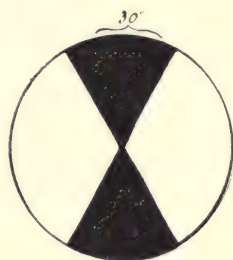


FIG. 25.

to the dimensions of the angles of the respective sectors. Hence if the two complementary colours are of equal intensity, exactly one-half of the disc must be painted over with each in order to produce a grey on the disc being set in rotation. On comparing the various available colours by this means, their intensity will be found to vary considerably, there being, for example, no single blue, green, or violet equal in intensity to the yellow of lead chromate.

In everyday life, as also in the dyeing and printing industries, an entirely erroneous conception exists as to the meaning of the "intensity" of a colour, this being generally confounded with depth of colour—a totally different property. Thus, for example, if a blue be mixed with black, it becomes deeper in colour, but not more intense, the intensity of black being *nil*. In this way dark dyeings may be produced with a very little dye-stuff; and as the beauty of the colour is improved by the admixture of an *absolute* black, a

black of this kind would be very valuable, provided it also possessed the other qualities demanded of a good practical dye-stuff. With such a black it would be possible to produce a series of dark shades much handsomer and more cheaply than is obtainable by existing methods. On mixing colours with blacks of the kinds now available, the following modifications are produced :—

Yellow	with black	gives brown.
Green	„ „	olive.
Red	„ „	red brown.
Blue	„ „	grey blue.

If the intensity of the colours be reduced by applying them in thinner layers, they suffer a peculiar change of tone, becoming poorer in red. Thus, orange becomes yellow, blue turns more greenish blue, etc. Therefore, if it be desired to lighten a colour without altering its tone, it must receive an admixture of red.

The knowledge of which colours are complementary to each other is of considerable practical value. In dyeing textile fibres the colours are mostly produced by combining two, three, or even more dye-stuffs,—mode colours, for instance, being generally obtained by combining yellow, red, and blue, the dye-stuffs used having to fulfil two principal requirements—suitability for combination and good equalising properties. Most of the dye-stuffs of any one group will combine well together; but dyes that require a strongly acid bath will combine badly with such as have to be dyed in a neutral or weak acid bath. Equalising implies the uniform distribution of the dye throughout the fabric, etc., without difficulty.

In addition, however, certain other factors have to be considered, such as fastness to light, the shade, brilliancy, and price of the dye-stuff; so that it is sometimes a matter of difficulty to fix upon the most suitable dyes for a given colour.

Occasionally in combination dyeing a hitherto unexplained phenomenon is noticed, some unstable dye-stuffs giving fast colours when combined with other dyes, *e.g.* the case with methyl-violet along with alizarine on cotton.

If a fabric be dyed with a blue, a yellow, and a red dye-stuff in certain proportions—entirely dependent on the properties of the dye-stuffs themselves, such as tone, productivity, and affinity towards the fibre—a grey will be produced. Hence these three colours should be complementary. However, yellow and blue have already been given as complementary, and should therefore suffice to give a grey when combined; the addition of red should consequently furnish a brownish red. To find an explanation of this apparent paradox it should be remembered that the colours at our disposal are not homogeneous, green being present both in blue and yellow.

On the two being mixed together, one complements the other and grey is formed, but now the green present in both makes itself apparent, and we have, instead of grey, a greenish colour.¹ Now, in presence of the red, this latter combines to form a grey the red and green being complementary colours. If in such a combination the yellow preponderates, a yellowish grey, drab, or brown will be produced, a predominance of blue giving a greyish blue, and so on. The colours resulting from combinations of only two of these colours can be easily deduced: blue and yellow furnish green; blue and red, a bluish red or violet; yellow and red, orange.

Knowledge of such combinations mostly finds its application in dyeing to pattern, which consists in producing a colour that shall exactly match a given pattern.

In many dyeings only a single dye-stuff is employed, but if the dyeing is to be strictly to pattern, the aid of other dye-stuffs has often to be sought in order to obtain the desired tint. Thus if in dyeing a blue, for example, the colour has come out rather greener than the pattern to be matched, it must be shaded off by adding a small quantity of red or violet. A bluish black can be shaded or converted into coal black by the aid of a yellow dye.

One circumstance in particular occasionally renders dyeing to pattern a really difficult task, namely, that a simple comparison with the pattern immediately after dyeing is not sufficient, it being necessary to take into consideration the changes the colour is likely to suffer in the subsequent operations of washing, drying, finishing, etc. This necessitates an accurate acquaintance with the behaviour of the particular dye-stuff in question—a knowledge only to be acquired by practice. Thus if it be known, for instance, that a given yellow dye has the property of becoming greener in the subsequent operations, then, in order to arrive at an exact match to the pattern, it will be necessary to at first dye somewhat redder than the required shade.

Occasionally, too, it is necessary to dye a colour over with a small quantity of another dye-stuff, particularly when it is desired to increase the brightness of the colour. In such event a bright dye of the same shade and with good equalising properties is used.

The comparison of a dyeing with the original pattern is known as "matching"; and in this operation the following considerations must be borne in mind:—

¹ On mixing yellow and blue—not substantially, but in the state of the sensations produced by both colours on the retina—a grey is obtained, as may be demonstrated by the rotating disc aforesaid.

1. Colours have a different (generally darker) appearance on the wet material than on the dry fibre; consequently, in matching, a small piece of the dyed material must be taken and dried; though, with practice, wet matching is possible.

2. The general and particular appearance of the two specimens must be compared, so as to enable an *immediate* judgment to be formed as to their similarity or difference. The longer the eye looks at colours the less sensitive does it become to slight differences between them.

3. The samples should never be viewed by artificial light, but always by diffused daylight. Even in this case, however, one and the same colour will sometimes have a different appearance, this being more particularly observable in the case of certain aniline drabs on wool, which appear greener at one time and more reddish at another, according to the lighting of the place where the inspection is made.

Finally, it should be mentioned that in harmonising colours (in cloth-printing) the best results will be obtained when the colours in juxtaposition are mutually complementary; also, that the brighter colours ought to be allotted a correspondingly smaller space than the others, in order to prevent the total effect being spoiled by the predominance of one or two of the colours.

2. Theory of Dyeing.¹

The two principal factors influencing the method of performing any operation of dyeing, and the behaviour of the colour when finished, are the dye-stuff and the fibre. Dye-stuffs behave variously in dyeing, the difference being dependent on their chemical composition and on the nature of the fibre to which they are applied.

An examination of the classified dye-stuffs shows that the mutual relation of the members of each class depends more on a single property held by them in common than on their constitution. Thus all the numerous acid dyes, be their constitution never so divergent, behave in a perfectly analogous manner when applied to the different textile fibres, and exhibit no fundamental differences. This they evidently owe to their acid character, due to the presence of sulfo-, nitro-, and hydroxyl groups, the last named playing the principal part in this connection.

The basic dye-stuffs, whether azo compounds like chrysoidine or belonging to the triphenylmethane derivatives like fuchsine, all

¹ The following sources have been drawn upon in compiling this section:—Georgievics:—*Mitth. Techn. Gew. Mus. Wien*, 1894, p. 165; *ibid.* pp. 205-220, 349-361; *Monats. f. Chem.* v. 15, p. 705-717; 16, pp. 345-350. Lehne's *Färber Ztg.* 1895-96, pp. 17-18. *Chemiker Ztg.* 1895, p. 426.

exhibit the same pigmentary character, thanks to the one or more amido groups present in each.

The substantive dyes, without exception, contain both acid and basic groups at the same time. Their capacity of dyeing cotton direct must be sought in the basic part of their molecule.

In the case of the mordant, or adjective, dyes, the relation between their constitution and their capacity for dyeing mordants has not yet been thoroughly investigated. This much is certain, that here also the hydroxyl groups play the principal part, this property being due to a special quality, and not to their acid character alone, since otherwise the far more strongly acid sulpho groups would exhibit a similar influence, which is not the case, the capacity of a dye for fixing with mordants being diminished by the presence of sulpho groups.

The insoluble dyes, like the developing and albumin dyes, can only be compared with the other groups when in their developed and finished state.

However different the various dye-stuffs and fibres may be, all dyeings have so much in common, in respect of their method of production and their behaviour, that they must be regarded as belonging to the same type of phenomenon, their difference being merely one of degree and not of principle.

As regards the method of production, the following observations apply:—

The dye is taken up gradually by the fibre—and best in the warm—the operation being complete in a short time, usually within the hour. At the expiration of this period no more of the dye is absorbed, even though the fibre be left in the bath for days. The slower the rate of absorption the greater its power of withstanding the influence of washing when once fixed on the fibre, though this only applies within certain limits. A portion of the dye always remains behind in the bath, this proportion being the greater the larger the amount of water and dye present in relation to the quantity of fibre and the degree of instability—as regards the influence of washing—of the dye itself. The larger the quantity of dye taken up by a fibre, the less is it capable of absorbing a further amount of the same; consequently, the first portions of dye are absorbed more rapidly and with greater energy, and therefore adhere more firmly to the fibre. The latter has a tendency to absorb relatively more dye from dilute than from concentrated solutions; and a light shade of dye is always relatively faster to washing than a darker shade produced by the same dye-stuff. If it be attempted to re-extract absorbed dye from the fibre by means of water, the following

characteristic phenomenon is observed, namely, that, with extremely rare exceptions, this removal is incomplete, even when enormous quantities of water are used, thus showing that the dyeing process is by no means an entirely reversible one in the majority of instances.

When several colours are applied to the same fibre, the amount of each finally absorbed is independent of the order in which they come into action. It is therefore immaterial, so far as the final result is concerned, whether the several dye-stuffs be applied together or in succession; though it is essential that the same bath be used, that the dyes taken do not precipitate one another from solution, and also that the fibre be immersed in the bath until equilibrium is established as regards the distribution of the dye between the fibre and the dye-bath. This, however, as a general thing, only applies to hot dyeings; in dyeing at the ordinary temperature, a superposition, or overlaying of one dye above another, may sometimes occur.

This behaviour of dye-stuffs in dyeing must be based on some definite law, which may be ascertained by the quantitative examination of the distribution of a dye between the fibre and the bath. By determining how much dye has been taken up by the fibre, and how much is left in the bath, and calculating from these data what quantities of dye are contained in equal weights of the fibre and the bath liquor, we obtain two values, which may be expressed by Cf. (fibre), and Cb. (bath). The quotient $Cf. \div Cb.$ is termed the coefficient of distribution, and its dimensions depend on the nature of the dye-stuff and fibre, the temperature of the dyeing process, and the concentration of the bath liquor in relation to the amount of fibre treated. The rule is that the coefficient of distribution slowly sinks as the concentration of the bath increases.

If this diminution of the coefficient of distribution be actually quite uniform, then, for mathematical reasons, the expression $\frac{\sqrt[n]{Cb}}{Cf}$ must possess a constant value independent of the concentration. This is, in fact, actually the case in two instances, viz. the dyeing of silk with indigo-carmin at boiling-heat, and in dyeing mercerised cotton with methylene blue in the cold.

When it is considered how varied are the circumstances and factors coming into play in these two dyeings, and that a gradual reduction of the coefficient of distribution is also noticed in numerous other instances of dyeing, there will be no hesitation in according the above expression the dignity of a law, which, however, for reasons that cannot be argued out in detail here, only applies in its full extent to light and medium colours.

The aforesaid peculiarities of the dyeing process find their precise mathematical expression in the formula

$$\frac{\sqrt{x/Cb}}{Cf} = \text{a constant,}$$

the "law of distribution," and can also be deduced therefrom. Furthermore, the value of the root-sign x affords a measure of the affinity of the dye for the fibre, and naturally varies for different dyeings, being greater in proportion as the affinity of the dye-stuff for the fibre increases.

From this law of distribution follows the practically important fact that the absorption of the dye—especially those that are not taken up readily—is primarily dependent on the volume of the bath liquor. It would therefore be more correct to apportion the weight of dye taken to the volume of the bath liquor, and not, as is the usual practice, to the weight of goods to be dyed.

Another circumstance, and one that has not yet been mentioned, influences the dyeing of the textile fibres, namely, their fibrous structure. If a textile fibre be dyed in its fibrous condition, and in the state of powder, it will be found that the powder takes up more dye in the cold than the fibrous form, this resulting from the greater amount of surface exposed. In the warm, the conditions are reversed, the fibrous structure in this case offering the greater resistance to the extractive action of the bath water. As a matter of fact, it is invariably found that materials dyed in the state of fibre exhibit greater fastness to washing than such as have been dyed in the state of powder.

How great is the importance of structure in dyeing is most clearly seen in the case of bodies with only very slight affinity for dyes, by dyeing them with substantive dyes, in both forms, structural and amorphous. A good example of this is afforded by asbestos, which, in the powdered state, absorbs little or no dye, but takes up a fair amount in the fibrous condition.

Structure introduces a new factor into the dyeing of textile fabrics, namely, capillarity, the influence of which, as may be gathered from the foregoing, is favourable. Nevertheless, it does not effect any modification of principle in the nature of the distribution of the dye between fibre and dye-bath, and consequently the law of distribution $\frac{\sqrt{C \text{ bath}}}{C \text{ fibre}} = K$ is independent of the structure, the influence of the latter only coming into play in the value of K . Finally, the favourable influence of structure on dyeing is also made manifest in the phenomenon of equalising (*q.v.*). Some dyes equalise very well, so that any patchiness

becomes thoroughly obliterated as dyeing progresses, a transference of dye occurring from one part of the fibre to another—apparently favoured by the structure—until the distribution is uniform. The cause of this phenomenon is, however, deeper, and can be deduced from the law of distribution in the following manner:—Let us assume that a sample of stuff to be dyed has first been bound round in one particular place, and is then immersed in a solution of a good equalising dye until equilibrium ensues. On then untying the stuff, and immersing the undyed portion again in the dye-bath, what happens? That portion which was protected from the action of the dye enters into mutual reaction with the dye-bath, and continues to absorb dye until equilibrium is accomplished in accordance with the law of distribution. The bath, however, is thereby weakened, and thus the equilibrium between the bath and the rest of the stuff is disturbed, the result being that a portion of the dye is removed from all parts of the latter that were dyed previously. This performance is repeated until proper distribution is accomplished between the dye-bath and the entire stuff.

From this explanation of the phenomenon of equalising, it follows that the equalising property of a dye is in inverse ratio to its power of withstanding washing; the more completely reversible the dyeing, the more readily will any initial irregularity be equalised.

It is next essential to give attention to the properties of the finished dye; and all that can be said on this point can be told in few words, viz. that the dye behaves in nearly all its reactions just as though no fibre were present. Martius yellow and similar dyes separate from the fibre, by sublimation, when heated; fluoresceine is converted into eosine by the action of bromine; dyes containing a free-amido group can be diazotised on the fibre, and converted into more complex azo dyes by coupling with phenols and amines; very dark dyeings with fuchsine, methyl violet, and similar dyes, will bronze just in the same manner as the dye-stuffs themselves, etc.

Only, in fact, in two respects, viz. fastness to light and washing, does the presence of the fibre make itself felt. The washing fastness of a dyeing, or its behaviour towards solvents, depends not only on the solubility of the dye in question, but also on its affinity for the fibre and upon the way in which it is fixed thereon; and the solvent, in addition to the task of dissolving out the dye, has also to overcome its affinity for the fibre, a task which is naturally lighter in proportion as the fixing is defective.

The fastness of any dye towards light is chiefly dependent

on the constitution of the dye itself. Here, however, we are in presence of a phenomenon that, until quite recently, was entirely enigmatical, namely that the fastness of one and the same dye towards light differs on different fibres, the reason for this being that a dye may be absorbed in varying molecular dimensions by different fibres.

This may be traced from the law of distribution, but, in order to do this, some brief consideration must be devoted to another process—that of solution. Under the term solution we understand an intimate molecular admixture of two or more substances. If we allow two non-miscible solvents, such as water and ether, to act simultaneously on a substance that is soluble in both, we find that—just as in the case of dyeing, where a part of the dye is absorbed by the fibre, whilst part remains in the bath—a regular distribution of the substance occurs between the two solvents, and in such a manner that the ratio of concentration, the coefficient of distribution, is a constant value. This is known as Henry's law.

Instances are, however, known where the coefficient of distribution is not constant, but varies with the concentration. Van t'Hoff, Nernst, and Küster have proved that in these abnormal cases the molecular constitution of the dissolved substance is different in the two solvents, but that here also a constant expression for the distribution of the dissolved matter can be obtained.

If the concentration of the substance in the one solvent be expressed by C_1 , and that of the other by C_2 , and we assume that the substance in question is dissolved as single molecules in the first solvent, and as double molecules in the second solvent, the expression $\frac{\sqrt{C_2}}{C_1}$ will furnish a constant value.

Now this formula is evidently identical with that we already know as expressing the regular distribution of a dye between the fibre and the dye-bath, and we can therefore deduce from its form $\frac{\sqrt{C \text{ bath}}}{C \text{ fibre}} = K$ the conclusion that—just as in solutions, so also in dyeings—the dye-stuff must exist in different states of molecular constitution in the fibre and the bath; the fibre takes up simple molecules, leaving more complex molecules of dye-stuffs behind in the bath.

This is in perfect accord with the fact that dyeing is better effected in the warm than in the cold, the heat causing the complex molecules to break down into a simpler form, which is then taken up by the fibre. The difference in molecular dimensions between the absorbed and residual dye is expressed in the value of the

root-sign x , which, as already stated, is dependent on both the dye-stuff and the nature of the fibre. The dye is therefore absorbed differently, as regards molecular dimensions, by different fibres, a circumstance which explains the varying fastness to light of one and the same dye on different fibres.

Dyeing and solution are therefore analogous phenomena, a fact that, after being theoretically assumed by O. N. Witt, was first experimentally demonstrated by the author. Certain divergences, however, exist between the two, so that we are not justified in regarding the dyeing of textile fibres as a kind of "solid solution," since, were the dye really dissolved in the fibre, and the latter consequently permeated in a perfectly homogeneous manner, the ratio of distribution would be independent of the mechanical properties of the fibre. This, however, is not the case, it having already been shown that a powdered fibre is able, in consequence of its greater surface, to absorb far more dye in the cold than when in the fibrous condition.

The behaviour of dyeings towards water also tells against the solid solution hypothesis. Most dyes are absorbed better in the warm; hence, if the dyeing process be regarded as a phenomenon of solution, it must be assumed that at higher temperatures the solvent power of the fibre for dyes is greater than that of water, and that, conversely, at low temperatures the dye-stuff is more readily soluble in water than in the fibre. If this were the case, it would also follow that the dyed material would part with a larger quantity of dye when washed in cold weather than with hot, whereas, as is well known, the contrary is the case.

Some chemists regard dyeing as a kind of chemical combination between the dye and the substance of the fibre. According to this "chemical theory of dyeing," the keratin of wool and the fibroin of silk behave like the amido acids in exhibiting simultaneously an acid and a basic character, playing the part of an acid in presence of basic dyes, and acting like a base in presence of acid dyes. Knecht afforded some support to this view by his discovery of the fact that, in dyeing wool and silk with fuchsine and similar basic dyes, the colour base alone is absorbed, leaving behind in the bath the whole of the hydrochloric acid with which the base is combined. The explanation offered for this process was to assume that the wool and silk decomposed the fuchsine into hydrochloric acid and colour base, and formed with the latter a compound resembling a salt, since it was considered impossible for the colour to be due to the free rosaniline base, which is colourless.

This explanation of fuchsine dyeing became, however, untenable when it was proved that the decomposition of the fuchsine is

effected already by the water of the dye-bath; also that the rosaniline base exists in a coloured form; and, finally, that the hydrochloric acid of the fuchsine remains behind, quantitatively, in the bath in the dyeing of inert substances like glass, clay, etc.

A further support to the chemical theory of dyeing was regarded by some as afforded by the fact that all dyes exhibit an acid or a basic character, or the two combined, a body of perfectly inert chemical character having no dyeing power. In this view, however, one consideration is forgotten, viz. that a whole series of physical processes are also influenced by the chemical character of the substance coming into play. Thus, to give only one example, the well-known fact that aqueous solutions of caustic alkalis will adhere firmly to glass, whilst aqueous solutions of acids adhere only to a slight extent, and mercury not at all, has never yet been explained by anyone as due to chemical interaction. In reality, not one single fact is known that would indicate the probability of the occurrence of chemical combination between the dye-stuff and the fibre in dyeing; whereas, on the other hand, there are a number of weighty reasons proving the contrary, viz. :—

1. In chemical compounds the combination occurs in definite molecular proportions; whilst the case is altogether different in dyeing, the quantity of dye absorbed being determined by the law of distribution, which definite and regular distribution could not be possible unless the dye-stuff were in exactly the same chemical condition in both the fibre and the bath. Hence, if the acid of a dye-stuff be found in a free state in the bath, it must also be present in the free state in the dyed fibre.

2. Chemical compounds possess different properties to those of their constituents; this is not the case in dyeing.

3. In the dyeing of wool and silk with acid dyes the absorption of the dye takes place in the presence of a strong acid, *e.g.* sulphuric acid. Now an increase in the amount of such strong acid would be the reverse of favourable to the production of a salt-like compound between the dye acid and the keratin or fibroin present; whereas, as a matter of fact, an addition of sulphuric acid to the dye-bath leads to an increased absorption of dye.

4. A series of dyeings, of an indubitably mechanical origin—such as manganese bistre, and the dyeing of chemically inert bodies like asbestos, glass, etc.—clearly show that dyeing may be the result of adhesion alone.

5. It is also possible to dye one colour upon another.

For the above reasons it may therefore be concluded that dyeing is a phenomenon of absorption, the dye being retained on and in the fibre by adhesion.

III. Classification of Dye-Stuffs; Methods of Dyeing.¹

Since in this chapter we are solely concerned with the application of the dye-stuffs in the processes of dyeing and printing, the sole principle of classification we can adopt is based on the method of dyeing necessary to bring them on the fibre. The different classes of dyes, therefore, may be set down as follows:—

1. Acid dye-stuffs.
2. Basic or tannin dyes.
3. Dye-salts or substantive cotton dyes.
4. Mordant dyes.
5. Vat dyes.
6. Developing dyes.
7. Albumin dyes.

1. Application of Acid Dye-Stuffs.

The acid dyes are mostly sodium salts of sulpho-acids, and this class comprises the different marks of tropeoline, ponceau, Bordeaux, scarlet, fast red, chromotrope, black azo dyes (such as naphthol black), acid violet, acid green, several aniline blues, patent blue, several fast blues or indulines, tartrazine, quinoline yellow, azo-carmines, indigo-carmines, etc., as well as such dyes as owe their acid character to the presence of nitro and hydroxyl groups—the nitro dyes and eosines.

Dyes of this class are more frequently used than any others for dyeing wool and silk, but are not well adapted for dyeing cottons.

Application to Wool.—The dyeing is effected in presence of acids or acid salts, viz. sulphuric acid, sodium bisulphate—mostly known as tartar preparation—Glauber salt (sodium sulphate), alum, acetic acid, ammonium acetate, or ammonium oxalate. The object of these acid adjuncts is to neutralise the calcium bicarbonate in the dye water, liberate the dye acid, and finally to diminish the solubility of this latter in water, thus facilitating its absorption by the fibre and helping the bath to “draw.” The stronger the acid the better and more quickly is the dye absorbed by the wool.

An equally important rôle is played by Glauber salt, which acts as a regulator to ensure uniform absorption of the dye by checking the rate of absorption. The selection of the adjuncts to the bath depends, therefore, primarily on the equalising properties of the dyes used and their tendency to draw well or badly, as the case may be.

In addition, it has to be considered whether the dye in question

¹ For details applicable to the separate dyes, the reader is referred to the instructions issued by the various makers of dye-stuffs.

will stand a strongly acid bath or not; and another important factor influencing the selection of the adjunct is the quality of the goods to be dyed, closely woven goods being harder for the dye to penetrate uniformly than is the case with slack-twisted yarns. In the former case the operation must therefore be allowed to proceed slowly, and in a faintly acid bath.

Another factor regulating the absorption of dye is the temperature, the rate increasing as the latter ascends. Therefore, since high acidity of the bath and high temperatures accelerate the absorption of the dye, whilst Glauber salt has a restraining action, it is necessary, in the case of dyes that do not equalise well and goods that are hard to dye through, to commence operations at a low temperature and in a faintly acid bath containing Glauber salt. Should the dye-stuff draw badly, the acid is added in several portions during the operation, or delayed until the close; but with a dye that equalises readily it is possible to start with a very—sometimes boiling—hot, strongly acid bath, provided, of course, that the dye-stuff itself will stand a very strong acid bath. In some difficult cases the bath is allowed to become gradually acid during the operation, by adding ammonium acetate or oxalate, these salts being slowly decomposed, with liberation of ammonia, on heating.

The usual method of dyeing wool with acid dyes is as follows:—The bath is charged with 2–4 per cent. of sulphuric acid, 10 per cent. of Glauber salt, and the (filtered) solution of dye-stuff, the goods being entered at lukewarm or medium temperature and gradually raised to boiling, which is maintained for one hour to one and a quarter. This prolonged boiling is essential for securing the equalisation of the dye, though some dyes, such as indigo-carmin, dye well at somewhat lower temperatures. Only in the case of light shades is three-quarters of an hour's boiling sufficient; and here it is advisable, in the interest of better equalisation, to dye with less acid and more Glauber salt.

The foregoing method is applicable to the majority of dyes, and an addition of 2–2½ per cent. of sulphuric acid will generally be sufficient; naturally this is also influenced by the hardness of the water.

In the case of dyes that equalise well, *e.g.* quinoline yellow, naphthol yellow, patent blue, cyanol, fast acid violet 10 B., fast green (bluish), azo-carmin, chromotrope 2 R., etc., the goods are entered direct into the boiling bath. On the other hand, with a large number of dyes inferior in this respect, such as the ponceaus, scarlets, fast reds, Bordeaux, etc., the goods are entered at medium temperature, and an increased addition of Glauber salt—about 20 per cent.—is very desirable, though not absolutely

necessary. In such cases it is usual, in practice, to use about 10 per cent. of Glauber salt and 10–15 per cent. of sodium bisulphate. With regard to the latter, which is also used alone, it is frequently contaminated with saltpetre, which may do harm in dyeing, owing to the liberation of nitric acid. Ten parts of the bisulphate may be replaced by 4 of sulphuric acid and 10 parts of Glauber salt.

The black acid dyes are mostly used in association with bisulphate, though a better plan is to commence dyeing with Glauber salt and acetic acid, a small percentage of H_2SO_4 being afterwards added to help to draw the dye.

In the most difficult cases of all, where the dyes equalise badly and the stuff is hard to dye through, the material is first boiled for some time in more or less strongly acidified water before the addition of the dye.

The eosines require to be dyed in a faintly acid bath, one of the two following methods being pursued:—(1) The bath receives an addition of 2–10 per cent. of acetic acid (or alum) according to the hardness of the water and the intensity of the dyeing; (2) the goods to be dyed are first boiled in a bath containing 5 per cent. of alum, 5 per cent. of acetic acid, and 5 per cent. of potassium bitartrate, the solution of the dye-stuff being added after the bath has been cooled down to 50°C . The temperature is afterwards again raised to boiling-heat. This second method gives the more brilliant dyeings. In either case less boiling is required than with the other acid dyes, a quarter of an hour to half an hour being sufficient.

For combination dyeings the selected dye-stuffs should be similar in their behaviour during the process, the choice therefore generally falling on such as equalise well and are able to stand a strongly acid bath.

Shading off is effected at boiling-heat in the case of dyes that equalise well; in other cases the bath must first be cooled by an addition of cold water.

Dyeings that have come out too dark or patchy may be corrected by a treatment with hot soda solution.

Finally, it may be mentioned that dyes generally equalise better in old bath liquors, *i.e.* such as have already been used several times over. The cause of this is of a twofold character; in the first place, the bath contains a larger quantity of Glauber salt (from previous dyeings); and, secondly, the repeated boiling of different parcels of wool has extracted a larger amount of wool substance, which, like the bast of silk, helps to retard the absorption of the dye.

An older method of dyeing with acid dyes, especially scarlets, consisted in using a small percentage of stannous chloride and potassium bitartrate. The resulting dyeings are faster to milling than those obtained by the aid of Glauber salt and sulphuric acid.

The alkali blues, which also belong to the acid class of dyes, are dyed in a special manner, owing to the fact that the corresponding dye acids are insoluble in acidified water. The goods are first entered in an alkaline bath (boiled for three-quarters of an hour to an hour) wherein the wool takes up the dye in a colourless form. Borax is the most suitable alkali for this purpose, 5–10 per cent. being used; soda, though sometimes employed, is disadvantageous for the fibre on account of its strong alkalinity. After this preliminary treatment the wool must be very thoroughly washed, and is then entered for about twenty minutes in a second bath, containing 5 per cent. of sulphuric acid. Here the colour is developed, coming out greener in shade, it may be stated, in proportion as the developing bath is cooler. If greater milling fastness is desired, the colour is developed with alum instead of sulphuric acid.

These alkali blue dyeings, which unfortunately are of only very low fastness to alkali and light, are, however, characterised by good milling fastness (provided they are well washed after the first bath) and considerable beauty. Shading, when desired, is effected by means of acid dyes applied in the second (acid) bath. Dyeing to pattern is a more difficult operation with these dyes, owing to the fact that the colour is only developed in the second bath.

Application to Silk.—Here also, and for the same reasons as in the case of wool, the dyeing is performed in an acid bath, sulphuric acid being most generally used. In some cases—eosines, for instance—such a strong acid bath is unfavourable, and should be replaced by acetic acid or tartaric acid. The silk draws the dye even in the cold, and—just as in the case of wool—it is possible to accelerate or retard the absorption to suit the equalising powers of the dye by regulating the temperature, degree of acidity, and the use of more or less bast soap, which here replaces Glauber salt. Instead of bast soap, a $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. solution of Marseilles (olive oil soap) and a 0.4 per cent. solution of gelatine may be used—at least for dyeing on the small scale.

The acidified bast soap bath is prepared by boiling with the required quantity of acid; the silk is entered and then lifted, and then only is the necessary quantity of water added, along with a portion of the dissolved dye. In this method the fat separated from the bast soap remains in a state of very finely divided emulsion,

which is not the case when the whole of the water and acid are added together. According to the equalising power of the dye, the amount of bast soap solution taken ranges from one-third to one-fourth of the entire bath, one-third part of bast soap solution and two-thirds water being generally used for starting. A larger proportion of bast soap is used when uneven dyeing is anticipated or when the silk has acquired a dusty appearance, due to defective treatment in process of weighting with sodium silicate.

The dissolved dye is added by degrees during the operation. The silk is entered at 30–40° C., well worked about whilst the temperature is being raised to near boiling-point, and is finished at a temperature of about 90° C. Actual boiling-heat should be carefully avoided. In the case of the eosines brighter colours are obtained at temperatures somewhat lower than the foregoing. Raw silk must be dyed lukewarm, souple silk at a lower temperature than fully scoured silk. Very delicate colours, being dulled by sericin, must be dyed without bast soap.

After dyeing, the silk is washed, then livened or brightened by treatment in a lukewarm to hot bath (more or less strongly acidified by the same acid¹ that was used for dyeing), and is afterwards drained and dried without rinsing. This treatment brightens the colour and improves the feel of the silk, *i.e.* makes it more brittle and harder to the touch, as well as giving out a crunching sound when compressed. The degree of "feel" produced is varied according to the purpose for which the silk is intended, and is the greater in proportion as the bath is hotter and more strongly acid. To entirely remove the feel, the silk is immersed for several hours in a lukewarm bath containing 25–30 per cent. of fuller's earth, calculated on the weight of the silk; the same softening effect is also obtained by treatment with the so-called "two oils" (*see under Oleic Acid*). The goods so treated are employed for producing a "moiré" finish, silk with scroop being unsuitable for this purpose.

Shading with another dye is sometimes practised in the brightening bath. In order to obtain fastness to washing, the dyed goods are put through a solidifying treatment (*q.v.*).

Dyeings that have come out too dark or patchy are corrected in a bath very rich in bast soap, which extracts part of the dye.

As in the case of wool, the alkali blues are first applied in an alkaline bath, and the colour developed in an acid bath. The first bath is charged with 10–15 per cent. of Marseilles soap for light

¹ A few grams of acid per litre (parts per mil.), the quantity of water being thirty times the weight of the silk.

shades, or 20–30 per cent. for dark shades, together with the requisite amount of dye, the silk being entered hot and finished by boiling. It is next well washed—otherwise the colours will come out dirty—and the colour is developed in a bath containing sulphuric acid; stannous chloride and hydrochloric acid being used instead when greater fastness is desired.

Application to Cotton.—The acid dyes are not well adapted for dyeing cotton, their affinity for cellulose being almost *nil*. Nevertheless they have been used for this purpose in the absence of more suitable dyes—previous to the introduction of Congo red—and are still, though only to a limited extent, viz. for the production of a vivid scarlet by means of croceines and similar azo dyes. The *modus operandi* is as follows:—The cotton is first steeped for some time in a fairly concentrated solution of basic alum, and then dyed in a lukewarm dye-bath containing a minimum of water; or else the dyeing is effected in a single bath containing an addition of alum and common salt. Brighter colours are, however, obtained when the cotton is first treated with a cold (about 4° B.) solution of sodium stannate, for one to one and a half hours, previous to the alum bath. The eosines also can be applied to cotton in a lukewarm bath with a large proportion of common salt. All these dyeings, however, are so poorly fixed that they must not even be rinsed afterwards.

Some acid dyes, *e.g.* marine blue, produced by sulphonating strongly basic dyes, can be applied to cotton after the manner of the basic dyes, *i.e.* subsequent to the treatment of the material with tannin. (See later.)

2. Application of the Basic Dye-Stuffs.

The basic dyes are mostly salts of colour bases with hydrochloric acid or with zinc chloride. To this class belong several azo dyes, such as chrysoidine and Bismarck brown, also auramine, the rosaniline dyes, and such of the malachite green series as are not sulphonated, the rhodamines and pyronines, acridine dyes, methylene blue, most of the oxazines, such as new blue and Nile blue, the safranines, indoines, eurhodines; finally, also the indulines and nigrosines, in so far as they are not sulphonated compounds. The use of these dyes is chiefly for dyeing and printing cotton.

Application to Wool.—Wool takes up the basic dyes in a very uniform manner, without the use of any adjuncts in the dye-bath, and the absorption begins at a temperature of 30–40° C. Hard

water should be corrected with acetic acid until the reaction is slightly acid, since otherwise the colour bases separate in resinous masses and cause streakiness, which is impossible of removal. A slight addition of acid is also desirable, because the wool mostly retains some alkali from the washing process, and this, by forming the colourless colour base, would retard the absorption of the dye. Moreover, these dyes draw more slowly in a faintly acid bath, a condition recognised as favourable in dyeing operations generally. Too much acid hinders the absorption of the dye. The goods are entered lukewarm, and the operation is continued for about an hour, the temperature not being allowed to exceed about 80° C. Dyeings performed at boiling-heat are less brilliant in colour. Nevertheless, gentle boiling is admissible in the case of dark shades, and of a few dyes of this class, such as methyl-violet. Auramine must be dyed in a neutral bath.

The brightest colours are obtained by adding a little Marseilles soap to the neutral dye-bath, and avoiding higher temperatures, about 50° C. being the limit. In this case, however, in order to avoid stains, the water must first be boiled with soap, and the resulting scum removed. This method is very seldom used in practice.

The necessary quantity of wool is added in two or three portions during the operation, and not all at once. Wool that has been sulphured is not, as a rule, fit for dyeing with basic dyes.

As far as possible the combination of basic dyes with those of acid character should be avoided, since in many cases it leads to the formation of insoluble precipitates which may produce spotting. Frequently, however, basic dyes are used for topping dyeings produced from other groups of dyes, the object of this treatment being to shade or enliven the colours. The operation is generally performed in a fresh bath.

A very special process is employed for dyeing with many of the green dyes, such as brilliant green, methyl-green, malachite green, etc. The wool is entered in a boiling hot bath containing 7½ per cent. of sodium hyposulphite, 2 per cent. of sulphuric acid, and 5 per cent. of alum (or zinc acetate), in a wooden vat, and is worked about in this bath for three-quarters of an hour after steam has been shut off; it is then drained in the hydro-extractor, rinsed, and dyed at about 50° C. in a bath containing about 3 per cent. of acetic acid, in addition to the dye. The bath liquors should be kept for use over again; the oftener they are used the finer the colours obtained.

In the above process sulphur is precipitated on the fibre, and

assists in fixing the dye. These dyes can, however, be applied in a simpler manner by passing the wool through a hot soap bath (1–2 per cent. of soap), and then dyeing in a fresh, lukewarm dye-bath. This method is seldom used, though occasionally resorted to for the production of a brilliant green of greater fastness than is afforded by the use of the various acid greens.

Basic dyeings on wool are characterised by lustre, good equalisation, fastness towards alkalis, and milling fastness. They are, however, fugitive to light, rub off under friction, and bleed into any adjacent undyed portions when washed.

Application to Silk.—The basic dyes are rapidly taken up by silk, even in the cold. The process is conducted at temperatures up to about 50° C. in presence of acid dyes, and at higher temperatures in a bast-soap bath slightly qualified with acetic acid or tartaric acid, the dye being added in several portions during the operation.

These dyes play only a small part in silk-dyeing. The most generally used members of the group are rhodamine, methyl violet, malachite green, Magdala red, and fuchsine.

Application to Cotton.—This is the main sphere of usefulness of the basic dyes. They dye cotton direct, producing very handsome, light shades, which, however, cannot be utilised in practice, owing to their fugitive character. Only in the case of several soluble indulines, such as indamine, methylene grey, etc., can somewhat more stable dyeings be produced by the aid of alum, provided a medium temperature be not exceeded.

It must not, however, be forgotten that a variety of dyeings can be produced with basic dyes on cotton that is to be spun into half-wool vicuna yarns, by the aid of alum and medium temperatures. The fastness of the dye is improved by entering the cotton first in a hot soap bath, then in a cold bath of stannous chloride, and finally in the dye-bath. In some cases the cotton is first steeped for a short time in a solution of basic alum, then treated in a chalk bath, followed by a weak tannin bath, and finally by the dye-bath proper. In this manner, methylene blue, for example, will furnish purer blue dyeings than when fixed with tannin and antimony.

The only rational method of dyeing cotton with basic dye-stuffs consists in first preparing the material with tannin or a fatty acid salt of alumina, and then dyeing by gradually heating the bath to about 60° C. during half an hour or an hour. Some dyers prefer to dye without heat, since brighter colours are then obtained; these however, are not so well fixed as those furnished by the hot process, and consequently the method is only advisable for light and medium shades. In a few instances,

e.g. indoline blue and several fast blues, the dye-bath must be heated to boiling.

Dyeings performed on cotton prepared with tannin are faster, but less handsome, than those obtained with the aid of fatty acids. A remarkable example of this is afforded by the rhodamines, a dull lilac being produced by tannin, whereas fatty acids give a handsome rose-red.

As already mentioned in the case of wool, hard water should be corrected before use for dyeing basic dyes; and here also an addition of acetic acid is essential when light shades or badly equalising dyes are in question. Some of the latter, *e.g.* those used to imitate indigo dyeings, *viz.* induline, indoline blue, etc., must receive an addition of alum, since otherwise uniform dyeing will be a result difficult of attainment.

In many instances the goods dyed with basic dyes are put through a supplementary treatment; some colours, *e.g.* fuchsine, are brightened by a treatment with hot alum solution; others are rendered faster by passing the goods through a bath of tannin. Finally, the fastness of the above-mentioned blue dyes is improved by a supplementary treatment with potassium bichromate, this "after-chroming" being effected by treating the goods for some time in a solution of the salt in question (1 per cent. for dark colours) at a temperature of 30–60° C.

Thanks to their great affinity for the fibre, the basic dyes may also be used for shading and topping cottons that have been dyed with dyes belonging to other groups.

3. Application of the Direct or Substantive Cotton Dyes.

To this group belong the benzidine, diamine, and Congo dyes, their principal employment being in the direct dyeing of cotton. Their introduction produced a revolution in the cotton-dyeing industry, the simplicity and cheapness of the process, and the non-necessity for using tannin or mordants, quickly raising these dyes to a position of high importance. However, they are surpassed in brilliance by the basic dyes and in fastness by the adjective dyes; moreover, they are more susceptible than the basic dyes to impurities in the material and to injury during the gassing process—on which account they should be gassed in a plate machine and in a moist condition. Some of the dyes of this class, *e.g.* cloth brown, anthracene red, carbazol yellow, the sulphone dyes, etc., are more suitable for wool-dyeing than for cotton.

The subject of these dyes has been treated in an excellent manner by A. Kertesz, in a book issued by L. Cassells & Co.

Application to Cotton.—The adjuncts used in the dye-bath comprise common salt, Glauber salt, soda, potash, sodium phosphate, and soap. The two first named help to precipitate the dye, and therefore accelerate absorption, whilst the others, being alkaline, exert a solvent action and therefore retard the process.

Here, therefore, just as in the case of dyeing animal fibres with acid dyes, we have the means of controlling the rate of absorption, in accordance with the equalising power and drawing of the dye, and the quality of the material to be dyed. Of the foregoing adjuncts, common salt, Glauber salt, and soap alone are used by themselves, the others being always employed in combination.

Common salt or Glauber salt can be used singly for dyeing any of the members of this group of dye-stuffs, though in practice they are confined to the slow-drawing dyes. In most instances, and in all combination dyeings, an alkaline reagent retarding the absorption of the dye, and a precipitant, are used in conjunction. When it is necessary to reduce the rate of absorption, as is the case with light shades and stuffs that are difficult to dye through, the alkaline reagent alone is added at the outset, the precipitant being added at the end of about half an hour; were it not for this latter, too much of the dye would be left behind in the bath. This method is also recommended for dyeing mixed shades.

Soap is preferably employed for light shades or difficult mixed colours, and it has also the advantage of softening the material in yarn-dyeing. In all other instances, soda is generally preferable to soap as the alkaline adjunct; the latter smears the dye vats.

As a general thing, the yellow dyes are applied in a neutral bath, the blues in a neutral or alkaline bath, and the reds in a strongly alkaline bath. Some dyeings—mainly yellows and some reds—come out brighter when sodium phosphate has been added; and in many red dyeings the same effect follows the use of Turkey-red oil.

The usual adjuncts are employed in the following proportions and with the following dye-stuffs:—

1. Common salt or (calcined) Glauber salt. These are chiefly used for slow-drawing dyes and dark shades, the proportions taken being 10–15 per cent. for light shades, and 20–30 per cent. for dark shades, calculated on the weight of the cotton. In a few cases (Mikado dyes, Nyanza and Tabora blacks, etc.) as much as 50–100 per cent. is taken. This adjunct is suitable for the Mikado and Hessian dyes, for primuline, diamine golden yellow, Titan rose-red, diamine green, various cotton browns, benzo grey, etc. For the most part, purity is not an essential feature in these salts, ordinary

Glauber salt and rock salt being quite suitable for the purpose, except in the production of delicate light colours, for which crystallised Glauber salt or ordinary common salt should be used.

2. Soda and Glauber salt. For dark shades, 5 per cent. of soda and 15 per cent. of Glauber salt are taken, the quantities being halved in the case of light shades.

This method is applicable to nearly all these dyes, especially for most of the diamines, Chicago and Zambesi blues, many mixed shades, etc.

3. Soap (2–5 per cent.) and Glauber salt (2–15 per cent.), the proportions varying according to the depth of the colour, are used for light shades, difficult mixtures, and materials that are hard to dye. This adjunct is specially recommended for geranine and for chloramine yellow.

4. A mixture of 5 per cent. of potash and 2 per cent. of soap is frequently used for dark shades of the various red dyes of this group—Congo, benzopurpurine, etc.,—as also for several blues, *e.g.* benzo-black blue. The highly important benzopurpurines, however, give fuller shades with sodium phosphate and soap, and brighter colours with sodium silicate and soap.

5. With 10 per cent. of sodium phosphate and 2 per cent. of soap (for dark shades) advantageous results can be secured in dyeing many yellow shades, such as chrysamine, chrysophenine, thioflavine S., thiazol yellow, Congo and toluylene orange, as well as others such as benzazurine, Congo-corinth, and many mixed shades.

When a number of substantive cotton dyes are used together for the production of mixtures, it is advisable to select such as are of similar behaviour. The adjuncts used will then depend on the properties of the predominating components of the mixture; and in these cases soda and Glauber salt, or soap and sodium phosphate, will be used almost exclusively.

The chief point to be considered in the selection of the adjuncts is the drawing property of the dye; and the influence of the adjunct on the shade of the colour must not be overlooked. Thus, for example, diamine green is dulled by alkalis, and must therefore be dyed in a neutral, or, at most, faintly alkaline bath.

As regards the temperature to be maintained in dyeing with this group, the following observations apply:—For light shades the goods are entered at 30–40°C., and the bath gradually heated to 50–60°, the dyeing process occupying about half to three-quarters of an hour.

For medium and dark shades the initial temperature is 50–60°C., the bath being then slowly raised to boiling-point and

kept thereat for about an hour. For deep shades, however, it is generally preferable to boil for only half an hour at first, then shut off the steam and continue to dye in the slowly cooling bath.

The quantity of bath water plays an important part in the dyeing with substantive cotton dyes. Most of them draw badly, and consequently it is necessary to work with a minimum of water when dyeing dark shades. The maximum quantity of water is 20–25 times the weight of the cotton; for dyeing piece goods in the jigger (*q.v.*) a 5–6-fold quantity of water will be sufficient.

In any event, a portion of the dye will remain behind in the bath; consequently the baths from the dyeing of dark shades should be preserved. When using these over again, a correspondingly smaller quantity of dye is added, together with only one-third to one-half the original amount of the adjunct used. In using up an old bath previously employed for the production of a mixture, and therefore containing a number of dye-stuffs, it must not be forgotten that, in consequence of the varying drawing power of the constituent dyes, their proportion will be different from what it was at the outset. Hence, in order to ascertain what proportions of fresh dyes should be added, it will be necessary to make a trial dyeing with the bath as it is, the appearance of the resulting colour giving the requisite information.

The bath is prepared by adding to the water an amount of soda proportionate to the lime content, then boiling up the water with the dissolved dye-stuff, and afterwards running in the necessary quantity of the adjunct required.

After dyeing, the goods are washed, except in the case of light shades produced in a neutral bath. This washing must be performed with particular thoroughness in the case of the blues dyed in strongly alkaline baths, since otherwise the colours will be too dull. The goods must be dried at a moderate temperature, and in a plentiful supply of air; otherwise (especially in the case of benzazurine, congocorinth, etc.) irregularities may appear.

Reds are frequently livened up by means of Turkey-red oil, the goods being passed through an emulsion of the oil, and afterwards centrifugalised and dried.

Dyes diazotised and developed on the Fibre; so-called Ingrain Dyes.—The cotton is first dyed with a substantive dye containing a free amido group, capable of diazotisation, the absorbed dye being then diazotised by treatment in a bath containing sodium nitrite, and finally treated in a developing bath, a phenol, or an amine, to convert the dye into a complex azo compound.

This method was first applied to primuline, and subsequently extended to diamine black, diazo black, etc., and at the present time plays a very important practical rôle.

The dyeings produced in this manner are deeper and faster to washing, many of them also faster to light, than those produced in the first bath without any further treatment. In addition, the diazotisation and development of the colour are accompanied by an entire modification of tone,—primuline, for instance, when dyed direct with common salt, giving a yellow, which, though pure, is too unstable to be of any practical value; whereas when diazotised and developed with β -naphthol, it furnishes a red; with ethyl- β -naphthylamine (Bordeaux developer), a Bordeaux: both distinguished for washing fastness, and far superior to primuline yellow in point of fastness to light. The different diamine blacks furnish a grey and a blue, which are also used *per se*. To produce darker shades of greater washing fastness, the dyes are mostly diazotised—with phenylenediamine, or toluylenediamine, for black; with β -naphthol for dark blue, and with naphthylamine ether for lighter and more brilliant blue. Diazo brilliant black gives a Bordeaux shade, which is converted, by diazotisation, into greyish blue, with β -naphthol, and into brown with phenylenediamine.

A modification of this method consists in developing the diazotised dye with soda, thus producing, not a complex diazo dye, but probably merely replacing the diazotised amido group by hydroxyl. This method chiefly serves for the production of bright browns with the assistance of diamine-catechu, diazo brilliant black, etc., these dyeings being intended to replace catechu.

The processes of diazotisation and development on the fibre are therefore mainly employed for the production of dark blues, browns, and blacks, also for red and Bordeaux (with primuline).

The *modus operandi* is as follows:—The cotton is first dyed with the requisite dye-stuff, then well washed and drained, and afterwards entered in the diazotising bath. This contains $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of sodium nitrite and $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of 20° B. hydrochloric acid, for dark shades, or $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of sodium nitrite and 5 per cent. of 20° B. HCl for light shades, and is prepared by stirring the dissolved nitrite, and afterwards the (diluted) hydrochloric acid, slowly into a sufficient quantity of water—which depends on the weight of cotton to be treated—in a wooden vat. In this bath the cotton is treated for a short time, *e.g.* five minutes for primuline, or fifteen minutes for diamine black,¹ after which it is rinsed in acidified water (1 vol. of hydrochloric acid per 500 vols. of water) and immediately

¹ Only in exceptional cases is the diazotising process incomplete at the end of this time, *e.g.* diazo blue (By.), which takes about three-quarters of an hour.

entered in the developing bath. After the diazotising bath the dye is contained in the fibre in the state of a readily decomposable diazo compound, and consequently the cotton must not be left to stand in this condition.

The developing bath contains a solution of some suitable developer, the most important of which have already been mentioned above. The bath must be cold, and the cotton treated therein (a few minutes to a quarter of an hour) until the colour ceases to become darker. Finally, the goods are washed, though in some cases a good soaping is needed to fully develop the colour.

Both the diazotising and developing baths must be brought up to the original strength before being used over again.

When soda is used as the developer, the goods are diazotised as usual, and then entered, without being washed, in a warm bath ($40-50^{\circ}\text{C.}$) containing three parts, by weight, of calcined soda per thousand, where they are worked for a quarter of an hour, after which they are soaped or washed.

The process of diazotising and developing on the fibre is also adopted in the production of mixed colours, either by the combination of two or more diazotisable dyes, or by the combination of diazotisable dyes with other kinds of dyes that are not affected by the diazotising process; or, finally, by mixing different developers.

Topping Developed and Undeveloped Dyes with Basic Dyes.—The colours furnished by the substantive cotton dyes are inferior in beauty to those obtainable with basic dyes; neither are they so easy to dye exactly to pattern. For this reason they are frequently topped with basic dyes in small proportion, by treating the dyed and washed goods in a bath containing 1–2 per cent. of alum or acetic acid, together with the necessary amount of dye, at the ordinary temperature. The statement, often found in the literature of the subject, to the effect that the fixation of the basic dyes is a special faculty of the substantive cotton dyes, is erroneous, since all dyeings on cotton—indigo blue, alizarine colours, manganese bistre, etc.—possess the property of absorbing basic dyes or their colour bases.

Fixing Substantive Cotton Dyes by Subsequent Treatment with Metallic Salts.—In many instances the fastness to washing or light (or both) of substantive cotton dyes may be improved by immersing the dyed goods in hot solutions of metallic salts. Unfortunately, however, this treatment is accompanied by a change of shade, which renders the process unsuitable for general employment. It is advantageously used for blues intended to replace

indigo, among which special mention may be made of Cassella's diamine blue RW, which when "coppered" (treated with copper sulphate) approximates very closely to indigo blue.

The method itself was first applied to Bayer & Co.'s benzazurine, which gives greenish shades very fast to light.

The salts employed in this treatment are—copper sulphate, chromium fluoride, and potassium bichromate, the first named in particular, the mode of application being as follows:—The dyed cotton is worked about for a quarter to half an hour in a bath containing 3–5 per cent. of copper sulphate (according to the depth of the colour) and kept at a temperature of about 80° C. When piece goods are in question, the bath contains $1\frac{1}{2}$ –3 parts of copper sulphate per 1000.

Application to Wool.—Of late this application of the substantive dyes has begun to receive the attention it deserves.

Mention should first be made of those dyes which, although belonging to the cotton dyes, are yet more suitable for dyeing wool; these include sulphonazurine, brilliant sulphonazurine, sulphonecyanine, fast diamine red, anthracene red, carbazol yellow, cloth brown, etc. They may all be dyed with 10 per cent. of Glauber salt—the acid-resisting fast diamine red also with bisulphate—and, except the two first named, all may be fixed with chrome mordants, thus yielding faster colours. This is done either by mordanting in advance, or, in the case of the reds, by after treatment with chromium fluoride. (*See Mordant Dyes.*)

The sulphone dyes (Bayer) must not be dyed at boiling-heat, neither is the customary addition of Glauber salt suitable in this case. According to the instructions given by the Elberfeld Farbenfabriken, these dyes must be used with an addition of ammonium acetate, though inequalities readily occur when this salt is used. In such event the following procedure should be adopted:—The goods are entered for some little time—about a quarter of an hour—in the dye-bath containing a small percentage (5 per cent. for light shades) of soap, after which about 2 per cent. of acetic acid is added by degrees, to facilitate the absorption of the dye, and boiling is then practised for twenty to thirty minutes. In this manner and by combining sulphonecyanine, sulphone brown, and chrysophenine, for example, perfectly uniform drab shades can be readily obtained, which are far superior in point of fastness to the corresponding colours furnished by acid dyes.

As regards the true cotton dyes, some of these exhibit, in wool-dyeing, properties which seem to render them more suitable, for many purposes, than the acid dyes. They are dyed at boiling-heat, with an addition of 10–20 per cent. of Glauber salt—according to the

depth of shade required,—and, should more complete extraction be desired, 2–3 per cent. of acetic acid can be added as well. Moreover, in contrast to the case of cotton, these dyes draw very well for the most part when applied to wool. For some of them—the reds mainly—better results are obtained with acetic acid, whilst bisulphate is preferable for others, such as diamine scarlet, diamine blue, etc. The most suitable adjunct, however, for many of these dyes is 10 per cent. of common salt and $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of potash—soda is altogether unsuitable here,—better extraction being obtained by this means.

As in the case of cotton, these dyes can be put through an after treatment with metallic salts.

The red and yellow substantive dyes are the best adapted for wool, the browns and violets least of all. Their superiority over the acid dyes is expressed in their greater power of withstanding milling and sulphuring. Thus, for instance, none of the many ponceau reds is suitable for dyeing loose wool and yarns for producing parti-coloured fabrics, which will have to be milled or require sulphuring in the piece, in order to clean any white that may be present. More on this point will be given in Section IV.

Finally, it may be remarked that the substantive dyes also play an important part in the dyeing of half-wool fabrics (*q.v.*).

The Application of the Substantive Dyes to Silk is exceedingly restricted, only a few—chrysamine, chrysophenine, Mikado yellow, etc.—being used, and that by reason of their fastness. The dye-bath for these is a bast soap bath qualified by the addition of acetic acid, and the brightening process is carried on in the usual manner. The dyes may be diazotised as in the case of cotton, and developed or treated with metallic salts. The substantive dyes are also of considerable importance in the dyeing of half-silk goods.

Supplementary Remarks.—In addition to the substantive dyes and several basic dyes, there are also a few others possessing the property of dyeing cotton direct. These are—rhodamine S, cachou de Laval, canarine, a few natural dye-stuffs like curcuma, safflower, and Orleans, though none but the two first are now in use for this purpose.

Rhodamine S is dyed at about 40° C. in presence of a small percentage of acetic acid, and furnishes a handsome rose-red.

Cachou de Laval is dyed for about half an hour at first, without any adjuncts, after which time 6 per cent. of soda is added—to soft water, or correspondingly more to hard water—and the operation continued for half an hour longer at about 70° C. By reason of their cheapness and fastness these dyes are still frequently

used for bottoming dark colours; they may be shaded by a treatment with metallic salts, iron, chromium, or copper.

4. Application of the Mordant Dyes.

To this class belong a large number of very differently constituted dyes, all of which possess an acid character, and are indebted to the presence of hydroxyl or carboxyl groups for their capacity of forming lakes with mordants.

Their pigmentary character differs considerably in degree. Some of them, formerly entitled "adjective dyes" are such weak pigments that they are incapable of furnishing utilisable colours when used alone, and require to be combined with mordants, with which substances they produce strongly coloured insoluble compounds known as "lakes." To these belong alizarine and the dye-woods. Others, again, are themselves highly coloured, notwithstanding which they cannot be used for dyeing unless in conjunction with mordants; this section includes galleine and many alizarine dyes. Finally, there are a number of acid dyes and substantive dyes than can either be used alone or fixed on the fibre by means of mordants, this sub-group comprising anthracene yellow, carbazol yellow, fast diamine red, brilliant alizarinecyanine 3 G, chromotrope, etc.

It is, however, impossible to draw any strict line of demarcation between these dyes, their divergences being gradual and not fundamental. Only in the case of the first-named adjective dyes is it perhaps feasible to constitute a separate group; and even here there are individual dyes, *e.g.* santal wood, that possess intermediate properties.

One characteristic possessed by all these dyes in common is that of fastness to milling.

In dyeing with mordant dyes, the nature of the bath water plays an important part, and therefore the water used must have been corrected with acetic acid, otherwise a partial precipitation of the colour, in the form of lime and magnesia lakes, may occur. In some cases organic impurities have an unfavourable effect, *e.g.* in presence of cochineal or alizarine blue.

Application to Wool.—This is the most important use of mordant dyes, and, in fact, most of them are suitable for this purpose alone.

The methods of fixing that may be employed in this case are varied, and for convenience of treatment will be described in groups.

1. **Dyeing previously mordanted Wool.**—This is an import-

ant process in wool-dyeing, and is applicable to all the mordant dyes. The temperature, duration of boiling, and the addition of acetic acid to the bath, all depend on the nature of the dye; and, from this point of view, the mordant dyes may be divided into three classes:—

(a) *Alizarine Dyes*.—These require the greatest care in dyeing, and are, for the most part, very susceptible to the influence of impurities in the goods to be dyed. The *modus operandi* is as follows:—The mordanted wool is first treated for a quarter of an hour in a cold bath of dye; the temperature is then gradually raised to boiling, in about an hour, and maintained in this condition for one and a half to two and a half hours, the goods being well worked. Should the initial temperature be unduly high, or the heating proceed too rapidly, unequal dyeing may easily result. Only in the case of loose wool is less care necessary, the initial temperature in that case being up to 40° C. The prolonged boiling is necessary to ensure the proper fixing of the dye.

A neutral bath is the most favourable for some of the alizarine dyes: alizarine red, alizarine orange, anthracene brown, and galleine, that come on the market in paste form. In other instances, especially for the powdered alizarine red, alizarine brown, and galleine, which are sodium salts of dye-stuff sulpho-acids, the liberation of the dye acid entails the addition of an excess of acetic acid (750 c.c. of 8° B. acetic acid per kilo—0·082 gal. per lb.—of dye, when the water has been previously corrected). The different marks of alizarine blue, cœruleine, alizarine yellow, etc., require in addition about 2 per cent. of 8° B. acetic acid to facilitate extraction, this addition being made by degrees at intervals during the process.

In mixed shades of different alizarine dyes it will always be possible, by exercising a little care, to work in a weak acetic acid bath, the acid being added gradually and not until the bulk of the dye has been absorbed.

Delicate light colours and materials that are difficult to dye through, such as felt hat bodies, are preferably dyed in a slightly ammoniacal bath at the start; and after boiling has proceeded for some time, the acetic acid is added until the reaction becomes slightly acid.

To shade dyeings made with alizarine dyes, the bath is neutralised with ammonia, the shading dye is added, and after a short time the acetic acid is run in by degrees.

(b) *Dye-Woods*.—These are easier to manipulate than the alizarines.

The mordanted wool may be entered at 50°–60° C, and the

period of boiling may be shorter, an hour and a half being sufficient for dark colours. A neutral bath is employed.

(c) *All other mordant dyes* can be dyed by entering the mordanted wool at 40° C., gradually raising the temperature to 100° and boiling for an hour to an hour and a quarter—longer boiling being only required in the case of chrome blue and chrome violet, for example, in order to complete the formation of the lake. They are all applied in a weak acetic acid bath, the amount of acid (1 to 1½ per cent. of 8° B. acetic acid) depending on how the dye draws. In some instances, *e.g.* cloth red, or goods that are difficult to dye, a little sodium acetate is added at first, followed by acetic acid.

Dyeings that have a tendency to dust off, *e.g.* logwood black, are often returned to the mordanting bath for a short time, after dyeing, to improve the fixation of the dye. This treatment occasionally induces a slight modification of the shade, alizarine cyanine, for instance, becoming a little bluer and darker.

2. Dyeing in a Single Bath.—This method has the advantage over the previous one of being quicker, simpler, and therefore cheaper, since the mordanting and dyeing are here combined into one operation. Herein, however, resides the drawback of the process, inasmuch as the formation of the lake in the bath results in a loss of both mordant and dye, and in most cases the dyeings are not so full or so well fixed as in the first method. There are three variants of this process:—

(a) *Dyeing in a Single Bath containing both the Dye and the Metallic Salts used as Mordants.*—In this case, therefore, the formation of the lake proceeds in the bath itself, and for this reason an acid substance (oxalic acid or potassium bitartrate) must be added, in order that the colour lake may be presented in a soluble form to the fibre. At the same time it is thus evident that this method, which gives the brightest of all the mordanted dyeings, can only be employed when the colour lake is correspondingly soluble. Its chief uses are in the production of cochineal scarlet, dyeing with yellow dye-woods (especially quercitron), and in a few logwood dyeings which will be dealt with more fully later on.

Latterly, also, this method has been applied to dyeing light shades with alizarine dye-stuffs. The dye-bath is charged with 3 per cent. of alum, or an equal quantity of chrome alum, 2 per cent. of oxalic acid, and the requisite quantity of dye, the wetted goods being entered at 30° C.; the temperature is then gradually raised to 100° C., and is maintained thereat for an hour. Similar alizarine single-bath dyeings can be performed with the assistance of tin or iron mordants, some alizarines even giving dark shades

on materials that equalise well, *e.g.* a dark red, with alizarine S, alum, and Glauber salt. The only single-bath alizarine dyeings of any practical importance, however, are those produced by the aid of chromium fluoride. The bath is charged with the dye and 3 per cent. of chromium fluoride, the damped goods are entered cold, then slowly raised to boiling and maintained there for an hour or an hour and a half. A number of pale blue, grey, and drab shades are produced on worsteds by this means, with or without vat bottoming.

(b) *The Deepening Method.*—This is used in the production of a number of drabs and blues by the aid of fustic, santal, madder, logwood, and sumach. The red dye used in the case of light shades is madder, the more powerful pigment, santal-wood, being employed for dark shades.

Used alone, without mordants, the above dye-stuffs furnish only light shades; light drab, for example, being obtained by the help of fustic, madder, sumach, and potassium bitartrate. The addition of logwood furnishes greyer tints.

In most cases, however, these dyeings must be darkened by the aid of mordants. Thus, for example, the goods are first dyed with fustic, madder, sumach, and logwood; the dye-bath is then cooled down by an addition of cold water, a little ferrous sulphate is added, and the whole is boiled up again for an hour.

Dark browns are produced by this method in the following manner:—The goods are first boiled for about an hour in a bath containing fustic, santal, logwood, and sumach; then cooled as above, treated with copper sulphate, boiled for another hour,—and when required to be still darker, cooled again as before, treated with ferrous sulphate, and boiled one hour longer.

It is impossible to give further details, the procedure depending entirely on the shade and depth of colour. For dark browns in general, 3 per cent. of copper sulphate and 1–10 per cent. of ferrous sulphate are employed; occasionally, for light shades, only a few hundredths to tenths of 1 per cent. of ferrous sulphate are taken, the copper sulphate being omitted altogether. Iron gives darker, copper brighter, shades.

(c) *After-Chroming; Developing with Mordants.*—Many acid dyes and substantive dyes, such as chromotrope, Victoria violet 4 BS and 8 BS, patent blue, cloth red, milling blue (Kalle & Co.), flavazol (Berliner Actiengesellschaft), anthracene yellow, anthracite black, fast diamine red, anthracene red, etc., can be improved in point of fastness to milling by a hot after-treatment with mordants. This treatment has been styled “after-chroming,” because only chrome mordants, *i.e.* chromium fluoride or potassium bichromate, are used.

It has been discovered (at the Hoechst Farbwerke) that acid alizarine dyes also can be applied by this method, both with alum as well as with the aforesaid chrome mordants.

In the case of acid dyes the advantages of this method are, that the fastness of the dyes, particularly with regard to milling, is greatly improved, better equalisation and more thorough permeation of the material being also ensured.

The after-treatment with chrome mordants renders the colours somewhat darker, but otherwise their appearance undergoes little alteration as a rule. In the case of Victoria violet, purer blues are obtained; but with the chromotropes, to which this method was first applied, a complete change of colour ensues, the red shades produced in an acid bath being converted by this treatment into dark blue to black.

The chemical reaction proceeding in the after-chroming treatment consists chiefly in the formation of a chrome lake of the corresponding dye; in a few instances, especially with several chromotropes (F.B., S.), chrome brown and chromogene I. (M.L.Br.) the reaction is one of oxidation, and consequently potassium bichromate is the only means that can be employed for after-chroming these dyes; in other instances the operation is performed partly with chromium fluoride and partly with bichromate. Some dyes, like the aforesaid Victoria violet, are decomposed by bichromate, and must therefore be treated with chromium fluoride. For all others, preference is given to whichever of these two chrome mordants furnishes the best results, chromium fluoride being most frequently selected, since it also renders the wool less harsh than the bichromate.

For the acid dyes the following method is employed:—The goods are dyed first in an acid bath as usual, after which chromium fluoride is added—in the proportion of 3–4 per cent. for dark shades, or less for light shades—and the bath is boiled for half an hour to an hour longer. When bichromate is used the bath must be first cooled down by adding cold water, and in this case also an addition of a little oxalic acid towards the end of the operation is usually beneficial.

Shading can be effected in the same bath, either before or after chroming, dyes of good equalising power being preferably used. When bichromate has been employed, the shading dyes selected must be such as are able to resist the action of this reagent, *e.g.* patent blue, many acid violets, azo flavine, orange IV, fast acid violet A2R, etc. Darkening with dye-woods, *e.g.* logwood, must be performed in a separate bath.

For the acid alizarine dyes and several other mordant dyes,

the after-chroming treatment has the additional advantage that difficult materials are more thoroughly penetrated by the dye, and better equalisation is secured.

The goods are first dyed in an acid bath, to which the chrome mordant is then added. Here the actual colour is developed by the addition of the mordant, on which account the method has been termed "developing with mordants." The bath is charged with 4–6 per cent. of sulphuric acid—it should be noted that many alizarine dyes draw badly when much sulphuric acid is used,—10–50 per cent. of Glauber salt, and the requisite quantity of dye. As can be seen, the proportion of Glauber salt fluctuates only within remarkably narrow limits, the amount depending entirely on the material to be dyed, and being larger in proportion as the material is more difficult to dye through and uniformly.

For easily penetrable yarns 10 per cent. is taken; for heavy close goods, 20 per cent. and over. Nevertheless, the above limit of 50 per cent. is rarely exceeded in practice. The previously dampened goods are entered at 50° C., or even hotter in the case of easily dyed goods, and boiled for an hour and a half, then cooled down to 50–60° C. by cold water, and, after the addition of the chromium fluoride or bichromate, boiled again for an hour to an hour and a half. The quantity of chromium fluoride taken varies from 2 to 6 per cent., and depends on the dye-stuff used; in most instances 3 to 4 per cent. will be sufficient. Bichromate is used in the proportion of 1 to 3 per cent.

Though alum and other mordants can be used for developing, only the above-mentioned chrome mordants are used in practice. With regard to the choice between the two, the observations already made in dealing with the after-chroming of acid dyes also apply here.

Finally, it should be mentioned that, according to the recipes of the manufacturers of dye-stuffs, these dyeings can also be performed in two baths. The goods are dyed in the first acid bath as already described, and, after development, are finished in a second bath by boiling with bichromate (about 1 per cent.) and sulphuric acid, or with chromium fluoride alone, or this latter in conjunction with about 1 per cent. of oxalic acid. This method has the advantage over the single-bath process that the two baths can be used over again.

Other mordant dyes for which the method of developing with mordants is of practical importance are—alizarine black, WR (B. A. S. F.) and diamine black (F. Bayer & Co.). For the first of these the method has the advantage of cheapness, whilst by this means the usual difficulty encountered with regard to the equalising of diamine black on mordanted wool is entirely obviated.

Both are dyed in a bath containing acetic acid—first with ammonium acetate and then with acetic acid, in the case of piece goods difficult to dye through, and afterwards developed in the same bath with 1 to $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of bichromate.

In the case of diamine black, when the goods are not difficult to dye through, Glauber salt is added, together with a little sulphuric acid to ensure more complete extraction; after adding the bichromate the goods are boiled for three-quarters of an hour, or an hour in the case of alizarine black.

Special interest attaches to dyeing with cochineal and a few of the logwood dyeings, which will therefore now be dealt with in detail.

Dyeing with Cochineal.

Cochineal furnishes a red with tin mordants, and an amethyst (bluish red) with aluminium mordants. The first of these, cochineal scarlet, is one of the oldest, handsomest, and best colours known, and formerly played a very important part in wool-dyeing. Even at the present time the cochineal scarlet shade is highly esteemed, though nowadays it is produced by the aid of various ponceau reds. Nevertheless, when a fast scarlet is required, as is most frequently the case with smooth cloths, it must still be produced by means of cochineal. Frequently the colour is bottomed with cochineal and topped with ponceau, a dyeing of this kind being termed "semi-fast scarlet," whilst the cheaper colour obtained with ponceau alone is called "fugitive scarlet," though the actual difference in fastness between the cochineal and ponceau scarlets is confined to their behaviour during washing and milling, the latter bleeding whereas the former are fast. Cochineal scarlet, however, will not stand treatment with soap or alkalis without undergoing a change of shade and turning a bluish tinge, whilst ponceau scarlet remains free from appreciable alteration. In point of fastness to light the best ponceaus are little inferior to cochineal.

There are two ways of testing the fastness of scarlet—by sulphuric acid and by stannous chloride solution. When touched with the former reagent, a cochineal dyeing gives a pure yellow stain, but in the case of ponceaus the colour is more or less brownish. When treated with a solution of stannous chloride of a certain strength—which can be determined by a few tests with the two colours—and heated, the ponceau dyeings are bleached entirely, whilst the cochineal dyeings are less affected. Semi-fast scarlet can also be easily detected by this means.

For the most part, cochineal scarlet is produced with cochineal

and lac dye, the resulting colour being somewhat less sensitive to the action of alkalis. In point of fastness to light these two dyes are about on a par; the handsomest shade, however, is that obtained from cochineal alone.

Cochineal requires no preliminary treatment to fit it for use, whereas lac dye must first be mixed into a paste with water, left to stand for several weeks, incorporated with a solution of stannous chloride, and again left for some time, since fresh lac dye will not give a handsome colour, the beauty of the dyeing increasing with the duration of the preparatory treatment. The method of dyeing is the same whether the cochineal is used alone or in conjunction with lac dye; consequently, for the sake of brevity, cochineal alone will be mentioned in describing the process.

Before entering on this description it should be stated that cochineal scarlet may be of various shades—full or thin, and more or less tinged with blue or yellow, as desired. It may be produced by mordanting and subsequent dyeing, or in a single bath. The latter method gives a more handsome red, of yellowish cast, whilst the other method furnishes more intense bluish red, and the material is dyed through better. Occasionally the two processes are combined, either by adding part of the dye to the mordant bath, or *vice versa*.

The mordants used are stannous chloride ("tin salt") with oxalic acid, or "acid for scarlet" with potassium bitartrate. By taking a small quantity of tin salt, a dull red, of bluish cast, is obtained, whilst an excess of tin salt or bitartrate gives a yellower scarlet, the latter salt furnishing a handsomer shade than is obtainable with oxalic acid. Scarlet produced with tin salt and oxalic acid is less sensitive to alkalis than that furnished by the other mordant mixture, though, on the other hand, the latter colour undergoes less alteration when heated.

In any case, pure soft water must be used for dyeing scarlet, and the operation must not be too protracted, the colour being rendered muddy by prolonged boiling. It is impossible to obtain a pure scarlet in a copper pan, and tin vessels must therefore be used. Strangely enough, the colour obtained by dyeing in wooden vessels, where there is no metal to cause muddiness, is less handsome than that produced in tin vessels.

The dye should, as far as possible, lie on the surface of the cloth, since under these circumstances the underlying white throws up the colour more brightly. The white section of the dyed goods is a characteristic indication of fast scarlet, the goods being always dyed further through when ponceau has been used.

The best method of procedure to adopt for obtaining a hand-

some scarlet is as follows:—The bath is prepared in a tin vessel, and contains only a part of the necessary cochineal and acid for scarlet, together with (purified, semi-crystal) bitartrate. The goods are entered very hot, so as to deposit as much as possible of the scarlet on the surface, the temperature being then raised to boiling, and the rest of the scarlet acid and cochineal added after awhile. The whole operation should not take longer than an hour and a quarter. About 15 per cent. of cochineal is required; but the amount of the mordant cannot be definitely given, owing to its very variable concentration.

In the second method, 3 per cent. of tin salt and an equal quantity of oxalic acid are used.

After dyeing, the goods are rinsed with water, slightly acidified with sulphuric acid to prevent the scarlet being tinged blue by the action of the bicarbonate in the water. The baths are not fully exhausted, and can be used over again with advantage.

By topping the scarlet with rhodamine a very vivid appearance is imparted to the colour. For producing a yellow tinge flavine is generally used, this being added to the cochineal in the dye-bath. Buckthorn berries, and occasionally fustet wood, are also taken for this purpose.

Scarlet occasionally exhibits a number of small black specks, so-called “tin stains” (tin sulphide?), in which event the goods must be steeped in a solution of oxalic acid.

Finally, it may be mentioned that very pale scarlets are also produced for pink shades.

To obtain amethyst shades with cochineal, alum is used, with or without tin mordant. In this case the single bath method is inapplicable on account of the considerable precipitate that would form in the bath owing to the low solubility of the alumina lake. Moreover, lac dye is unsuitable, this dye giving ugly brown shades with alumina mordants. The goods are mordanted with alum, bitartrate, and scarlet acid, and dyed in a fresh bath containing a little bitartrate and scarlet acid in addition to the cochineal. It is advisable to add a portion (about 1 per cent.) of the dye to the mordanting bath in order to ensure the goods being dyed through better.

Cochineal dyeings are often darkened by topping with archil; madder or alizarine being also employed for brownish red tones.

Occasionally the so-called “scouring” process is employed for blueing cochineal dyeings, the dyed goods being treated in a luke-warm bath to which ammonia is added by degrees. The operation must proceed slowly, and the goods must always be somewhat

“over-scoured,” since the colour goes back a little, *i.e.* loses some of the blue tinge, in drying.

Black and Blue Dyeings with Logwood on Wool.

Logwood is used in the form of chips or as an extract, and occasionally is subjected to a process of oxidation termed “fermentation,” the object of which is to convert the hæmatoxylin present in the wood into the true pigment hæmatein.

According to Von Cochenhausen, the different constitution of the chips and extract (which merely contain hæmatoxylin) from that of the fermented product should lead to a modification in their method of employment, which, however, is disregarded in practice. This observer's view is that, in the case of the unfermented wood or extract, the hæmatein is only produced during the operation, either as a result of prolonged boiling or of the oxidising action of the mordant on the hæmatoxylin; consequently these materials should preferably be used, in conjunction with iron and copper mordants, for dyeing wool that has been mordanted with potassium bichromate and sulphuric acid. If, however, the available mordants have no oxidising action, *e.g.* alumina mordants, or potassium bichromate in presence of an organic acid, then better results will be obtained with fermented logwood. Finally, he considers that the fermented product should never be used after the said oxidising mordants, since in such event the destruction of the hæmatein, which is readily oxidised to brown substances, is to be feared.

The fermentation is performed in a primitive manner, usually in the dyeworks, by spreading the logwood chips in irregular heaps, which are then moistened with water, or weak solutions of alkali, and turned over at intervals.

A more rational method of procedure is as follows:—The chips are laid in heaps, about eighty inches in depth, on a well-ventilated upper floor, where they are slightly moistened and left for several days or weeks, according to the time of year. The completion of the process may be recognised from the appearance of the wood, which, when properly fermented, is of a dark red-brown colour and exhibits in places (if sufficiently rich in pigment) a greenish incrustation of hæmatein crystals, with metallic lustre. The wood is then spread out in thinner layers and dried at about 50° C. in order to prevent further oxidation, which might prove injurious to the hæmatein.

Logwood extract is prepared in various ways, which may be divided into two chief classes,—with and without pressure; the

former furnishing a larger yield, whilst the latter gives the better quality product. The yield stands in direct relation to the degree of pressure and temperature employed for the extraction.

In extracting under ordinary pressure, which method is adopted in some works, the comminuted and unfermented wood is placed in a diffusion apparatus of the type used in sugar-refining, and is extracted with warm soft water, the sole pressure applied being that of a column of water about 10 feet high. If the product be intended for the calico-printer, the extraction is carried on at 60° C., but if for dyeing, the temperature is increased to 80°. The operation will be finished in about five to six hours, and the residue is used as fuel. Extraction at 80° C. should give a yield of at least 25 per cent.; at lower temperatures it is naturally smaller, but of better quality. If the American method be employed—extracting in closed vessels—the pressure should never be less than two atmospheres, and the quality suffers in proportion as the yield exceeds 30 per cent.

The solution obtained by one or other of the above methods is clarified by settling, and then concentrated to 30° B. *in vacuo*. The extract for printer's use, which must be entirely free from solid matters, is filtered before concentration, and the latter process is frequently stopped when the density measures 20° B. Solid extract is also made, but is less suitable for use—especially in printing—since in the preparation no trouble is taken to remove impurities, without which latter, indeed, the production of a solid extract by evaporation is impossible. In point of dyeing power, 6 parts of solid extract correspond to about 10 parts of a 30° B. liquid extract.

As regards the quality of the wood to be used, little can be said on this point generally, cheap logwoods being occasionally better adapted for the production of extract than dearer sorts. Extensive use has latterly been made of roots, chiefly from Jamaica, in the production of extract. The very fine extract sold under the name "hæmatein" is prepared from Laguna logwood.

The literature on the preparation of logwood extracts is comparatively large, but contains so many unreliable and contradictory reports that it will be left out of consideration here. There are also a large number of patents dealing with improved methods of manufacture and purification. Thus, to give an instance, Foelsing's patent proposes to extract fermented logwood and pass an electric current through the resulting solution kept under pressure, the object of this treatment being to de-resinify the extract. With regard to the technical value of this and similar processes no information is available.

Logwood is also extracted by two methods—with and without pressure—in dyeworks. In the latter case the chips are put into bags and boiled in water for two hours in a wooden vat. In the pressure method the chips are put into a small upright boiler and boiled twice—a quarter of an hour each time—with water, under a pressure of at least two atmospheres. A frequent source of error in this method is to work with too large a quantity of chips at a time; properly the boiler should be only about two-thirds full.

The black dyeing of wool with logwood is an art of great antiquity, there having been a guild of black dyers as long ago as the eleventh century. Formerly a fast black was produced on a vat bottoming, but at present, from motives of economy, this method has almost entirely disappeared, leaving the field to the three following processes:—

1. Iron black, or Salzburg black (so called because frequently produced with the aid of “Salzburg vitriol,” consisting of ferrous and copper sulphates), with ferrous sulphate and copper sulphate as mordants.

2. Chrome black, with potassium bichromate and copper sulphate as mordants.

3. Single-bath black, mordanted with ferrous sulphate, either alone or in conjunction with copper sulphate.

An important point is the quality of the water used for dyeing, softness being essential; so that hard water must be corrected with acetic acid. The resulting calcium acetate has a favourable influence on logwood dyeings, for reasons that have already been discussed in the chapter on Mordants.

Iron black is the oldest wool black known; the method is employed in a number of modifications, but only the simplest and most rational form will be described. The material is first mordanted with 10–15 per cent. of ferrous sulphate, 4–6 per cent. of copper sulphate, and $1\frac{1}{2}$ –2 per cent.—sometimes as much as 5 per cent.—of potassium bitartrate. Loose wool requires more mordant than piece goods. In the case of finer goods the proportion of bitartrate is increased, the result being that the material is dyed through better. Dyeing then follows. Nowadays extracts are chiefly used for dyeing loose wool, yarns, and the finer piece goods, logwood chips serving for lower-class goods. The black obtained by the use of extract is dearer but finer, and has a cleaner appearance than that from chips. A very handsome blue-black can be obtained with 10 per cent. of solid extract, the quantity of chips required for dyeing varying between 30 and 60 per cent., according to their richness in dye and the quality of the goods to be treated—the finer the material the larger the amount of dyewood. Some

dyers prefer the inferior kinds of logwood (*e.g.* Monte Christo) to the better sorts for this purpose. To convert the bluish tinge characteristic of logwood blacks into deep black, the dye-bath must receive an addition of about 2 per cent. of 30° B. fustic extract. The goods are entered hot, raised to 100°, and boiled for an hour and a half to two hours. The after-treatment with copper sulphate is frequently given in order to deepen the black and remedy defective mordanting. When mordanting has been correctly performed the dye-bath will be of a wine-yellow colour. After dyeing, the goods must be thoroughly washed—piece goods receiving an addition of fuller's earth—to dissolve the adherent unfixed particles of dye. If this be omitted the colour will rub off to a considerable extent.

Chrome Black.—The production of a deep logwood black with a chrome mordant alone is impossible, this method furnishing a blue-black which, moreover, is fugitive under the influence of light. Consequently in practice the so-called chrome black is produced with the aid of copper sulphate, the resulting colour being deeper and faster to light; the shade depends on the amount of copper sulphate employed.

The wool is mordanted with 3 per cent. of potassium bichromate, $1\frac{1}{2}$ –3 per cent. of copper sulphate, and $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of sulphuric acid; and is then dyed in the same way as for iron black. To ensure the black rubbing off as little as possible, which is an important consideration in yarns intended for working up along with white, the wool is returned to the mordanting bath for a short time after leaving the dye-bath.

Single-bath black is produced in two ways. Formerly a common black was obtained by dyeing the goods for some time in a decoction of logwood and 5–6 per cent. of sumach, and then darkening with ferrous sulphate.

This, however, rubs off more extensively than any other black dyeing on wool, and its use is therefore restricted to common wools and yarn waste. If a single-bath method appears advisable, either on the score of cheapness or because the prolonged boiling in the two-bath process is likely to injure the quality of the goods, then the dye-bath is prepared with 4 per cent. of ferrous sulphate, 2 per cent. of copper sulphate, 2 per cent. of oxalic acid, 10 per cent. of 30° B. logwood extract, and $\frac{1}{2}$ –1 per cent. of fast yellow. After boiling the bath liquor and cooling it down with cold water, the goods are entered and boiled for an hour.

An essential condition to success in this method is the use of a proper quantity of oxalic acid, which reagent is added to dissolve a portion of the colour lake formed in the bath, since, like other

textile fibres, the wool can only absorb dyes that are presented in the dissolved state.

If the dye-bath contain too little oxalic acid it will seem quite turbid, owing to the greater part of the colour lake remaining undissolved; consequently it will not furnish a full black. On the other hand, if the oxalic acid be in excess, not only will the whole of the colour lake be dissolved, but its absorption will be retarded. In such case the bath is quite pale, and naturally will not give a full black.

The single-bath method is also applicable to other dyeings; thus, a good navy blue can be produced in this manner with logwood, acid violet, and acid green, whilst logwood and cloth red give a fast brown. For this last purpose the single-bath method was first applied, by Oehler, to replace santal.

A logwood dyeing still frequently practised is the so-called logwood blue, which is a handsome colour, but very fugitive to light. It is produced by mordanting the goods with 8 per cent. of alum, $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of copper sulphate, 1 per cent. of bichromate, 4 per cent. of bitartrate, and 2 per cent. of oxalic acid, and then dyeing with logwood; the blue obtained by the use of alum alone would be too dull.

The washing fastness of the logwood dyeings is good; their fastness to light depends on the mordant used, copper and iron mordants giving fast colours, the other mordants fugitive shades. Iron black is very fast to light, but chrome black and logwood blue are fugitive, though the chrome black becomes satisfactorily fast when produced by the aid of copper mordant. On the other hand, iron black is very sensitive to acid; whilst chrome black is quite fast in this respect, dusts off to a smaller extent, and leaves the wool softer, on which account it is preferred to iron black for yarn-dyeing.

Application of the Mordant Dyes to Silk.

The mordant dyes are but rarely applied to silk; in fact, only when fastness to soap is desired. As in wool-dyeing, the chrome mordants are the chief ones used, alumina mordants being only resorted to for red and orange, and iron mordants for black.

Of the mordant dyes that are suitable for silk, mention may be made of the following:—Alizarine yellow GGW, anthracene yellow, mordant yellow, diamond yellow, carbazol yellow, galloflavine, cloth brown, diamond brown, alizarine orange, alizarine red (the wool marks), Kalle's cloth scarlet, galleine, anthracene blue, cœruleine, diamond green, alizarine black, diamond black, etc. As a matter

of fact, however, only a few are in general use, viz. alizarine red (*e.g.* the SX mark), alizarine orange, galleine, and cœruleine.

The *modus operandi* is as follows:—A very rich bast-soap bath is prepared of equal parts of (weak) bast-soap solution and water, which is then neutralised with acetic acid, for pale and medium shades, or made slightly acid for dark shades. The mordanted silk is then entered cold, worked about in the cold bath for twenty minutes or so, then raised to 90–95° C. in about an hour, and kept at that temperature for an equal time. When soft water is used an addition of calcium acetate must be made to the bath for alizarine red.

After dyeing, the goods are rinsed, energetically soaped by boiling for a quarter of an hour with about 2 parts of soap per 1000, then rinsed again, and finally brightened with acetic or oxalic acid (20–25 parts of 6° B. acetic acid per 1000, lukewarm) for ten minutes.

Logwood black plays a particularly important part in silk-dyeing, and, indeed, forms a special branch of this industry, quite distinct from colour dyeing.

The black dyeing of silk is one of the most difficult tasks the dyer has to perform. The art of the dyer consists in dyeing the silk and loading it to different degrees, in all imaginable shades of black, without impairing its lustre. The extent of the loading to be obtained is highly divergent, the minimum being to parity ("*al pari*"), *i.e.* the weight lost in scouring has to be made up again in loading; whilst the maximum loading attains 400 per cent. This latter degree was formerly reached in the case of souple silk for umbrellas, but is now almost entirely discontinued. The usual loading is about 50–60 per cent., light, souple umbrella silks being increased to the extent of 20–30 per cent., and heavy souples for the same purpose by as much as 190–200 per cent.

The requirements exacted of black silk in respect of shade, feel, and lustre are extremely varied, and the method of dyeing has to be modified in almost every case; consequently only the main outlines of the process can be sketched here.

The silk for black dyeing is treated almost exclusively in the state of hanks. The dye used is generally a home-made preparation, a 0.1° B. decoction of logwood chips, the commercial extracts, which are prepared from more highly concentrated decoctions, containing yellow dye-stuffs, in addition to haematoxylin, and being therefore unsuitable for the black dyeing of silk: in fact, the handsome blue-black known in France as "*noir bleu bleu*" cannot be obtained by the use of commercial extracts.

The silk is dyed in either the souple or fully scoured state. In the latter event, the *modus operandi* is as follows:—The silk is first

mordanted with Rouil mordant, as described in the chapter on mordants; after which it is blued by treatment in a bath containing potassium ferrocyanide and hydrochloric acid, whereby Berlin blue is developed on the fibre. In the next place the silk is entered into a hot bath of catechu, to which is gradually added a certain quantity of tin salt, the proportion of this latter varying directly with the degree of loading required. Then follows a second bath of catechu, this time without tin, and this is succeeded by the actual dyeing with the aforesaid decoction of logwood in presence of soap. The final operation is that of brightening, which consists of treating the silk in a bath containing emulsified olive oil and acetic acid or citric acid.

This is a broad sketch of the process, which is performed in various modifications.

Occasionally, to shade the dyeing, the silk is topped with fuchsine or methylene blue in a fresh bath. To obtain a blue tinge, iron pyrolignite must be used, the following treatment being interposed between the logwood bath and the brightening process:—

A bath of iron pyrolignite;

A cold, weak logwood bath;

A cold, weak catechu bath;

A bath of soap and logwood.

To obtain a still blue-black, the treatment with iron pyrolignite must be repeated after the second logwood bath.

According to the type of black required, various modifications are introduced into the several stages of the process; thus, for example, a single mordanting and a single weak catechu bath without tin are sufficient for light souples; whereas, for a rich black ("*noir riche*") the silk must be entered five times in a strong mordant bath and two catechu baths, one of them containing tin.

For light cheap black, the blueing with potassium ferrocyanide is omitted, its place being taken by a bath of alkali blue, which, however, must be used before, and not after, the mordanting with iron. For the sake of cheapness, catechu may be replaced by chestnut extract and divi-divi for heavy souples. Finally, also the brightening process is in many instances omitted, especially when the souple is intended for *moiré*, in which event a softening treatment is pursued.

Some souples that are not required to be deep black are dyed, without logwood, by merely treating them with alternate baths of an iron mordant and a tannin mordant.

The particulars of dyeing two different styles of black on silk are given below.

1. *Noir Riche, with 50–60 per cent. of Loading.*

1. The scoured silk is mordanted five times in a 30° B. bath of Rouil mordant.

2. Entered cold in a bath of 20 per cent. potassium ferrocyanide and 25 per cent. of hydrochloric acid, the latter added in two portions.

3. The silk is entered in a bath containing 200 per cent. of catechu, at 80° C., and, when the bath has cooled down to 65° C., an addition of 15 per cent. of tin salt is given, the silk being left in the bath for five hours longer.

4. The silk is entered in a boiling-hot bath containing 100 per cent. of catechu, and is left therein overnight.

5. Dyeing with a 0·1° B. decoction of logwood and 50 per cent. of soap.

6. Dyeing with fuchsine in a bast-soap bath qualified with acetic acid, at a temperature of 40° C.

7. To the foregoing bath is added, for brightening the silk, a mixture of 5 per cent. acetic acid and 4 per cent. of olive oil in the form of an emulsion.

2. *Trame Noir Souple Persan, with 150–160 per cent. of Loading.*

1. Treat with 5 per cent. of hydrochloric acid at 50°. Squeeze.

2. Mordant twice in an 18° B. bath of Rouil mordant.

3. Treat in a cold bath containing 30 per cent. potassium ferrocyanide and 40 per cent. of hydrochloric acid. Wash.

4. Enter in a decoction of logwood (density, 0·03° B.), at 40° C.

5. Enter in a bath of 500 per cent. of catechu, at 60° C.; heat and add 10 per cent. of tin salt when the temperature reaches 70° C., and an equal amount at 80° C. The entire operation takes a day; the goods are then washed with water at 40° C. and drained.

6. Treat for an hour in a bath of 100 per cent. of soap, at 60° C.; drain and dry.

7. Enter in the above catechu bath for one hour; wash.

8. Enter, at 50° C., in a bath containing 75 per cent. of soap and a little methylene blue.

9. Enter, at 40° C., in a bath containing 3 per cent. of gelatin and 20 per cent. of acetic acid.

10. Brighten with 4 per cent. of oil and 15 per cent. of acetic acid, at 40° C.

Application of the Mordant Dyes to Cotton.

The most important mordant dyeings on cotton are the Turkey-red process, several catechu dyeings, and, in a secondary degree, logwood black. In this branch, and especially in the dyeing of loose cotton, there still exist various irrational methods which have been handed down by tradition, and, having been based on the dyeing of wool, are really unsuitable for cotton. These dyeings are effected by the aid of dye-wood extracts, the cotton being boiled in dissolved mordants—alum, bichromate, copper sulphate, etc.,—then left exposed to the air all night, and dyed next day in a hot bath. Single-bath dyeings, darkened by after-chroming, are also still not infrequently performed. Leaving these out of consideration for the present, there are really two methods in use for dyeing cotton with mordant dyes. The chief of these consists in mordanting the goods and then dyeing in a bath, which, with few exceptions, should be neutral. The goods should first be treated in the cold dye-bath for about a quarter of an hour, the temperature being then raised, in about three-quarters of an hour, to 60–70° C., and there maintained for three-quarters of an hour, after which the goods are washed, and, in some cases, soaped hot or warm.

By this means a series of Bordeaux, garnets, browns, and violets are obtained with alumina alone or alumina and iron as mordants, on piece goods, the dyes used comprising alizarine, quercitron, redwood, rubine (impure fuchsine), and methyl violet, and being combined in pairs or threes—not employed all together. Thus brown shades are produced with alizarine, quercitron, and logwood, after mordanting with alumina and iron mordants, the colour being shaded, if necessary, with rubine or methyl violet. Strangely enough, the low fastness of the two latter dyes is not manifested in these combinations.

Of late a variety of dyeings for the production of discharge effects on piece goods have been performed by the aid of chrome mordants, the dye mostly concerned being anthracene brown.

A second method for dyeing (mainly piece) cottons with mordant dyes is that of Erban and Specht, which, though originally designed for Turkey-red, is also applicable to the production of a whole series of lighter colours. It consists in first padding the goods with an ammoniacal solution of dye, then drying, entering in a mordanting solution, redrying, and afterwards effecting the combination of the dye and the mordant by steaming.

Turkey-Red Dyeing.

By the name "Turkey-red" is understood a red dyeing effected on cotton by the aid of alizarine, alumina, lime, and fatty-acid compounds. For several hundred years this colour, thanks to its beauty and fastness, has played a part comparable to that of indigo in blue dyeing. It probably originated in India, and was brought from Turkey to France, where the method of performance was published by the Government in 1765, and whence the process spread to other European countries.

The production of Turkey-red was at one time the monopoly of a few manufacturers, who kept their operations a profound secret. In more recent days, however, this industry, which previously remained without any important changes, has made rapid strides through the supercession of madder by artificial alizarine, and the introduction of modern apparatus. The principal modification of all resulted from the introduction of Turkey-red oil, which has entirely replaced the older process for dyeing piece goods, and to a great extent in dyeing yarns as well. The superiority of the new method over the old chiefly resides in its greater brevity, the production of the red now taking only as many days as formerly weeks.

A good deal has been written with regard to the formation and composition of the colour lake here in question, and considerable research work has also been carried on in this connection. It was first discovered by Rosenstiehl that the formation of the lake from alizarine and alumina could not take place except in presence of lime. This was confirmed by Liechti and Suida, etc., it being also found that all Turkey-red dyeings contain lime.

The principal results of the labours of Liechti and Suida may be briefly recapitulated. If a solution of aluminium sulphate be treated with a corresponding quantity of an ammoniacal solution of alizarine, there is formed a dark red precipitate, consisting of a combination of one molecule of alumina with three molecules of alizarine.

This "normal aluminium alizarate" is readily soluble in water; whilst the basic alizarates, which contain a smaller proportion of alizarine, *e.g.* 1–2–3 molecules to two molecules of alumina, are insoluble in water and alcohol. Alkaline solutions of the normal or basic alizarates can be mixed with Turkey-red oil or soap solution without undergoing decomposition; but, on the alkali being neutralised, red precipitates are thrown down.

Liechti and Suida also prepared the calcium compounds of alizarine. Normal calcium alizarate, $\text{CaO} \cdot \text{C}_{14}\text{H}_6\text{O}_3$, is formed, as a

blackish violet precipitate, by the action of lime water on alizarine. The acid and basic alizarates, which are similar in appearance, pass over into the condition of the normal salt when warmed, from which it must be concluded that the normal alizarate is also formed during dyeing. Mixed with Turkey-red oil, and steamed after printing on cotton, this salt is decomposed into alizarine, calcium sulphate, and the corresponding fatty acid compound of lime. Therefore, since the steaming of the dye in presence of Turkey-red oil also occurs in the process of Turkey-red dyeing, it cannot be assumed that calcium alizarate is present as such in Turkey red. On the other hand, one is obliged to consider lime as an essential constituent of the colour lake, the latter being therefore assumed to be an aluminium-calcium-alizarate. According to Liechti and Suida, a "normal red" has the composition $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 \cdot \text{CaO} \cdot (\text{C}_{14}\text{H}_6\text{O}_3)_3$. To produce this red upon the fibre the goods should be charged with 0.198 grm. of alumina (Al_2O_3), and be dyed with 7 grms. of alizarine (in the form of 20 per cent. paste) per metre of cloth. In comparison with the above formula all the reds met with in practice exhibit an excess—generally considerable—of alumina, which, however, neither improves the beauty nor the fastness of the colour.

The amount of lime taken up in the dyeing is determined by the quantity of alizarine present; conversely, a material containing more lime will absorb a larger proportion of alizarine. When free calcium alizarate is present the red will have a brownish look; its beauty and brightness will be greatly improved by steaming in presence of Turkey-red oil, as will be evident from what has been stated above.

So far the results obtained by Liechti and Suida; nevertheless, the part played by the fatty acids in Turkey-red dyeing has not yet been clearly defined. We know, from experience with the mordants, that fatty acids exert a fixative influence on alumina as on other mordants, apparently by the formation of the corresponding fatty acid salts. However, whether the compound of alumina with the fatty acid combines with the alizarine in the formation of Turkey-red, or whether the alizarine precipitates the fatty acid in order to itself combine with the alumina alone, is a question that cannot yet be decided.

Since the Turkey-red lake always contains an excess of alumina and fatty acids, it may be justifiably assumed that a portion of the fatty acids is contained, as an alumina soap, in the dye. This assumption also affords a plausible explanation of the difficulty experienced in damping yarns dyed with Turkey-red oil, and the hardness of such yarns. To some extent also the fatty acids

probably form a mechanical protecting envelope for the colour lake, and thereby increase its fastness and lustre.

Tannic acid also plays a part in Turkey-red dyeing, since without this acid it is impossible to produce a fast Turkey-red. Its chief action is to render the dye fast to chemicking (chlorine), a matter of importance in the case of yarns that have to be woven with unbleached yarn, and then fully bleached in the piece. As in the case of the fatty acids, here also it must be assumed that the tannic acid first fixes the alumina; whether, however, it is chemically combined with the Turkey-red lake or not is unknown.

Finally, so far as the composition of the "old red" is concerned, we must assume it to correspond in the main with that of the "new red." Fatty acid compounds of the alkalis are brought upon the fibre in large quantity, and are probably oxidised into oxy-fatty acid compounds. Hence, in the subsequent mordanting with alum, there must be formed the oxy-fatty acid compounds of alumina and alkali sulphate. Moreover, old red contains a larger quantity of oxy-fatty acid compounds with alkali, as such, a circumstance explaining the greater fastness of this dye towards acids, as also the softness of the dyed yarns and the readiness with which they can be moistened.

To produce this old red, the yarn is cleansed by steeping for some time in water, followed by boiling in soda, almost without pressure, and washing. Next follows the characteristic feature of the process—mordanting with oil. For this purpose the yarn is treated for about a minute with an emulsion of "tournant oil" and soda or potash, by the aid of a mechanical appliance imitative of hand-steeping, after which it is squeezed and dried. The first stage of drying consists in hanging the yarn on a series of wooden frames set up in a spacious courtyard; and from these frames the yarn is transferred to the drying chambers, where it is left for some time, *e.g.* overnight, exposed to a temperature of about 40–50° C. This temperature must not be exceeded, and for this reason provision is made in large works for the automatic ringing of an electric bell when an undue elevation of temperature occurs. When dry, the yarn must be perfectly cool before it is laid in heaps, otherwise it may be weakened as a consequence of over-heating.

This process of impregnation with oil and alkali is repeated three to five times. In the oil bath a dissociation of the oil into glycerine and the fatty acid compound of the alkali used takes place, the latter compound being absorbed by the fibre; so that the more often the bath is used the more glycerine will it contain. The absorbed alkali-fatty-acid compound is converted into an insoluble form when dried, probably by oxidation into an oxy-fatty acid

salt. The unmodified fat is finally washed out by treating the fibre with lukewarm water and a little soda, the resulting solution of soap being afterwards used as a brightening bath.

After oiling comes the sumach treatment, the yarn being steeped for several hours in a warm decoction of sumach leaves (12–13 per cent.); this is followed by squeezing and aluming, without any intermediate washing. The alum bath consists of a fairly strong (about 12 per cent.) solution of iron-free alum, neutralised as nearly as possible with soda. The yarn is stretched on rods and immersed in the warm liquor. The rods carry toothed wheels on their extremities, which wheels, by engaging one in another, set the rods in rotary motion, and thus enable the yarn to be reeled in the mordant liquor. When properly impregnated in this way, the yarn is left at rest in the liquor for several hours, after which it is washed, preferably with hard water (to neutralise the sulphuric acid in the bath), and is then ready for dyeing.

This operation is performed in wooden vats containing alizarine (mostly with blue tinge), a little sumach, and ox blood; and, in the event of the water being soft, a little calcium acetate must be added as well. The tannic acid and yellow pigmentary matter of the sumach are absorbed first by the fibre, and help to ensure regularity of dyeing. The addition of ox blood to the bath assists in clarifying the colour, the impurities being enveloped by the coagulating albumin of the blood, and thus kept from absorption by the fibre.

The yarn, stretched on frames, is immersed in the cold bath, which is then raised to 100° C. in three-quarters of an hour, the goods being well worked the while. They are then lifted, tied together, and immersed in the bath once more, where they are boiled for a further three-quarters of an hour, in order to completely fix the dye.

To brighten the colour the goods, after dyeing, are first boiled with soda in large vessels, under a pressure of about a quarter of an atmosphere, to remove all impurities. This is followed by a similar boiling with soap; though sometimes the yarn is passed through a cold solution of the salt before boiling with soap, this treatment giving a brighter red. It is assumed that the tin is contained in the form of tin oleate in the fibre. Finally the goods are well washed.

With the single exception of cost, this old red is superior in all its properties to the new red described below. The ratio of cost is as five to three. The fastness to acid and chlorine is greater than that of new red, and the yarn is also far softer. Yarns may also be dyed pink by the old red process.

The chief rôle played by the new red process is in the dyeing of piece goods.¹ The operations in this new method, which owes origin to the discovery of Turkey-red oil, are as follows: padding with the mordant, oxidising, dyeing, dunging, oiling, steaming, soaping, and washing. The first operations, which are performed in order to fix the alumina on the fibre, have already been described in the chapter on mordants, and will therefore be taken as known. The dyeing is effected in the hank, the usual adjuncts to the bath being sumach, bran, size, Turkey-red oil, and, in the case of soft water, calcium acetate. So far as the size is concerned, this adjunct is only employed as a resist, *i.e.* to protect from the dye those parts of the printed surface that are to finally appear white. The Turkey-red oil, having no particular influence on the colour, may be omitted with advantage, though still used in some works. The bran has a cleansing action on the colour lake, and the sumach plays the same favourable part here as in the old red process, both as regards the fixing of the alumina and the uniform absorption of the alizarine; however, as it stains the material yellow, it must be replaced by tannin when the production of a blue-tinged red is in question. Finally, so far as the alizarine itself is concerned, the marks mostly in use are those largely consisting of anthrapurpurine. The selection of the particular mark of alizarine to produce a given shade is facilitated by making small trial dyeings with so-called "garancin strips," *i.e.* strips of cotton fabric printed with alumina and iron mordants (these are obtainable from, *inter alia*, Koechlin Frères, Mülhausen). The amount of alizarine required depends on the thickness of the cloth and the depth of red to be produced; from $8\frac{1}{4}$ to $8\frac{3}{4}$ grms. of 20 per cent. alizarine being taken per yard of 30-inch material. Bran and sumach are used in equal parts—each one-half of the quantity of alizarine employed.

Greater care is needed in dyeing than with the old red process. The pieces are entered in the cold bath for half an hour, the bath then heated very slowly to 60° C., whereupon the steam is shut off and the dyeing proceeds in the cooling bath, so that the operation takes two to two and a half hours altogether; then follow washing and drying at a moderate warmth. In consequence of the presence of free calcium alizarate in the colour lake, the goods have a dirty brown look at this stage. Next follows padding with Turkey-red oil solution, the stronger the better for the beauty of the colour,

¹ According to Hummel, cottons are also dyed Turkey-red by the Steiner process, which consists in padding them in a hot oil bath, followed by quick drying at sharp heat, then padding with soda solution and drying as before, these two operations being repeated some seven times. The goods are next passed through soda and water, washed, dried, mordanted, dyed and brightened.

though this oil imparts a yellow tinge, which must be borne in mind when a bluish cast of red is desired. To give one example of quantities, 100 parts, by weight, of Turkey-red oil (90 per cent.) are taken per 1000 parts of water. For red that is to be afterwards discharged a smaller proportion of oil is taken, in order to facilitate discharging. After oiling, the goods are dried and then steamed, it being noted that the red comes out brighter when the stuff is introduced in a slightly damp condition into the steaming chamber.

Steaming is performed for two to two and a half hours under a pressure of about two atmospheres, and exercises a very beneficial effect on the brightness of the colour. It is succeeded by the equally important operation of soaping, which renders the colour purer and more vivid, the process being effected at boiling-heat for one and a half to two hours, with about half a pound of Marseilles soap per sixty-yards piece of cloth. To improve the brilliance of the colour and give it a yellow cast a little sodium stannate is added to the soap bath, the same procedure being adopted when the shade comes out too full.

As an appendix to the foregoing description, it must be added that the oiling process depends on the tinge—bluish or yellowish—to be developed in the red. In the former event a slight oiling is given, this taking place after dyeing; whereas in the other case a twofold oiling is applied—one before mordanting, the other after dyeing. For the first oiling, a strong solution—*e.g.* 25 parts, by weight, of Turkey-red oil per 100 of water—is used, the goods being padded with this and then dried; then mordanted as usual, fixed, dyed, and padded again, this time with a weaker solution—*e.g.* 6 per cent. of Turkey-red oil. If oil has been brought on the fibre before dyeing, this latter operation can at once be proceeded with, and at a higher temperature than that already given. In this event the reaction that, under ordinary circumstances, goes on in the steaming chamber is in part completed in the dye-bath.

Of late a very considerable improvement has been made in this new red process by abbreviating the cumbrous operation of mordanting. This improvement was based on the fact, already utilised in the old red method, that cotton containing a large proportion of oil can be mordanted with alumina by simple immersion in a solution of basic alum. The *modus operandi* is as follows:—The goods are padded with a strong solution (20 per cent.) of Turkey-red oil, then dried in the hot flue, immersed for some time in a solution of basic alum, squeezed, piled in heaps, and finally washed with hard water, or, preferably, entered beforehand in a warm chalk bath to neutralise the sulphuric acid from the mordant. All the subsequent

operations are performed as before. Yarns are also dyed new red in this manner.

The method of Schlieper and Baum effects the dyeing of Turkey-red in a very peculiar manner. The goods are first mordanted with sodium aluminate, and then treated several times over with chalk, in order to convert the sodium aluminate into calcium aluminate on the fibre. The dyeing is performed by passing the material through a boiling-hot solution of alizarine in lime-water, in three to four minutes. After dyeing, the goods are padded with "acid soap," dried, steamed, and soaped.

Although the red obtained by this method is cheaper than that from the ordinary process, the method itself has not met with any extensive application, probably because some of the details of the manufacture are known only in the inventors' own factory.

Mention should also be made of the Erban-Specht process, which is specially adapted for the production of pink. The details of the process are given in the prospectus issued by the Hoechst Farbwerke.

Colours in Competition with Turkey-Red.—Until lately alizarine was without a rival as a red dye for cotton, merely a few, quite fugitive, yarn-dyeings having been performed with croceine scarlet. However, since the discovery of Congo-red and benzo-purpurine, large quantities of cotton have been dyed with these in (fugitive) imitation of Turkey-red.

The most dangerous competitor of the last-named dye is nitraniline red, which has largely displaced alizarine in the dyeing of piece goods, mainly by reason of its greater cheapness, the ratio of the cost of production of the two dyeings being about 4 : 1. Moreover, nitraniline red has the advantage of dyeing the goods through better than its rival, which remains more on the surface, so that materials dyed with alizarine red are unsuitable for raising. On the other hand, nitraniline red has some very grave drawbacks, the colour being too crude and glaring, as well as less fast to light and the influence of weather than alizarine red, especially when produced without the aid of antimony. In addition, its covering power is low, on which account the goods require to be well bleached beforehand, whereas Turkey-red will satisfactorily mask even a yellow cotton.

Dyeing with Catechu.

Thanks to its great fastness, this natural dye-stuff still plays a very important part in cotton-dyeing, and would be even more largely used, especially in calico-printing, if it could be discharged.

It also deserves remembrance in wool-dyeing, at least in such cases where great fastness to light is in question.

Catechu dyeings have only one drawback, viz. that the material becomes harsh when dyed in dark shades.

The dyeing process is based in part on an oxidation whereby the colourless catechu is converted into brown japonic acid, and partly on the formation of a colour lake.

Light catechu shades are produced on loose cotton and yarns in the following manner:—The goods are dyed for a half to one hour at 60° C. with yellow or brown catechu, or a mixture of both, and an addition of about 2 per cent. of copper sulphate. They are then treated for about twenty minutes in a bath of potassium bichromate or iron pyrolignite—the former applied warm, the latter cold. Developing with chrome gives reddish brown shades, iron greenish tones, intermediate shades being obtained by mixing the developers.

Yellow shades are produced by adding fustic and alum to the dye-bath; for duller and more greyish tones the foregoing adjunct is replaced by logwood without alum.

Dark catechu dyeings are always produced by the aid of dye-wood extracts (logwood, fustic, redwood).

In dyeing loose cotton and yarn, the *modus operandi* is as follows:—The goods are boiled for about an hour and a half in the dye-bath, containing catechu and copper sulphate, eventually also logwood or fustic extract, and then lifted and left exposed to the air. On the following day they are treated in a hot bath of potassium bichromate, and afterwards in a hot bath containing varying quantities of different dye-wood extracts, according to the shade required. This final dye-bath occasionally receives an addition of alum, or also tin salt for reddish tones.

Piece goods are first padded with a weak acetic acid solution of catechu, and dried, then passed through a hot solution of potassium bichromate, partially neutralised with soda, rolled up, and left alone for some time. In the case of dark shades, the pieces are passed a second time through the chrome bath, and left rolled up for several hours. Yellower tones are obtained by adding alum to the chrome bath; still yellower shades by adding alum and fustic extract; whilst, for very dark shades, an addition of logwood extract is given.

Catechu dyeings are frequently shaded by the aid of basic dyes, applied in a fresh bath in association with alum.

More recently a product obtained by treating catechu with potassium bichromate or alum has been put on the market under the name of "prepared catechu" or "catechin."

Black-Dyeing Cotton with Logwood.

The employment of logwood in the black dyeing of cotton has suffered considerably from the competition of aniline black and various substantive dyes.

The* first black on cotton was produced with sumach and iron mordants, the colour, however, being only a dark grey. At present there are two chief methods of dyeing cotton black with logwood. The first of these, which is mainly employed for loose cotton and yarn, consists in producing a colour lake from logwood, tannic acid, and salts of iron and copper, in various ways.

The most rational of these is the following:—The cotton is first left overnight immersed in a decoction of 40 per cent. of sumach; it is then squeezed and treated for half an hour in a cold solution of iron pyrolignite (of about 3° B. density), followed by passing it through very dilute lime-water, and thoroughly washing. By this means iron tannate is produced on the fibre; the lime treatment serves to neutralise the acid. The iron pyrolignite may be replaced by "iron nitrate" or ferrous sulphate, a little levigated chalk being added to the bath in the latter case. A handsomer black is obtained by the use of alumina mordants—a little aluminium pyrolignite, for example, being added to the iron bath.

The cotton thus prepared is next dyed with logwood, sometimes in presence of a little fustic, by entering in the cold bath, which is then slowly raised to boiling. To increase the fastness of the black, the stuff may afterwards be treated in a bath of bichromate ($\frac{1}{2}$ part per 1000, at 60° C.) or iron nitrate. Sometimes the shade is darkened in the dye-bath itself by an addition of copper sulphate.

Finally the cotton is soaped, a treatment that makes the tone of the black more agreeable.

The numerous variations of this method have been described by Ed. Weiler (*Lehne's Färber Zeitung*, 1889–90, p. 137).

The following method is generally employed for the production of mourning goods in piece dyeing:—The stuff is padded with a mordant solution consisting of 3 parts of iron pyrolignite (6° B.) and 7 parts of aluminium pyrolignite (7° B.), then fixed and dyed in a bath containing, in addition to the necessary quantity of logwood and a little quercitron, $2\frac{1}{2}$ oz. of borax, $1\frac{1}{4}$ lb. of sumach, and $5\frac{1}{2}$ – $6\frac{1}{2}$ lb. of cow dung, per 22 gals. of bath liquor. For the first quarter of an hour the bath is cold, after which time it is heated so as to bring the temperature up to 80–90° C. in about an hour. After dyeing, the goods are washed, treated with bran, and washed again. The bran bath is prepared by boiling bran—packed

in close bags—in water, in the proportion of 1 part, by weight, to 100 parts of water, the cotton being then treated in this hot liquor for twenty minutes.

5. Application of the Vat Dyes.

This group contains only two dye-stuffs—indigo and indophenol blue. Both are insoluble in water, and therefore cannot be used directly for dyeing. On the other hand, their leuco-compounds are soluble, have a very decided affinity for the fibre, and are also gifted with the property of being readily reconverted into the dyes themselves under the influence of weak oxidising agents. Consequently, in order to dye with these dye-stuffs, all that is necessary is to impregnate the fibre with the reduced dye in solution, and then expose it to the air. The fibre absorbs the leuco-compound of the dye-stuff, which is then reconverted by the atmospheric oxygen into the corresponding insoluble dye, the latter being precipitated firmly in and upon the fibre.

This method has been practised from time immemorial with indigo, and plays a highly important part, inasmuch as indigo has been, and still is, the chief vat dye-stuff known.

“Vat dyeing,” or “blue dyeing,” is the term usually applied to dyeing with indigo, since, with the exception of the comparatively unimportant indigophenol, no other dye is applied in this manner, nor can indigo itself be fixed on the fibre in any other way.

The term “vat” applies to the vessel employed for dissolving the indigo, and also to the solution itself. This latter is prepared by the aid of various reducing agents, which, however, can only be used in presence of an alkali, the resulting indigo white being insoluble except in alkalis.

The vats may be divided into warm and cold, or fermenting and non-fermenting, vats. To the fermenting vats belong the woad, soda, potash, and urine vats; they are warm vats, and are employed exclusively for wool. The non-fermenting vats comprise the zinc or preparing vat, the vitriol vat, the hyposulphite vat, and the indigo-indigophenol vat. The first two of these are cold vats, and are therefore used solely for vegetable fibres; the others are warm vats, and can be applied to the dyeing of both vegetable and animal fibres.

Whichever vat be employed, the first task is essentially the careful comminution of the indigo, since it is only when this substance is in a fine state of division that it can be brought into solution by reducing agents. For this purpose the indigo is mixed into paste with water and alkali, and ground for some consider-

able time in an indigo mill, of which there are numerous types.

The most important of the fermentation vats is the woad vat, which plays a principal part in the dyeing of wool, and is used solely for this purpose, the warm vats as a whole being ill adapted for dyeing vegetable fibres, whilst the application of indigo to silk-dyeing has now been abandoned.

The fermenting materials used in the preparation of the woad vat are woad, madder, bran, and syrup, the woad playing the chief part in the mixture. The addition of madder is in so far favourable that, apart from its fermentative action, this substance takes part in the dyeing process by virtue of its tinctorial character, a valuable consideration when dark shades are in question. The bran acts as an instigator of fermentation, and, in addition, imparts to the bath liquor a certain degree of viscosity favourable to the suspension of the indigo that is to be dissolved therein. However, since the presence of a large quantity of bran would tend to choke the vat, a portion of this substance is replaced by syrup.

The alkaline adjuncts to this vat are lime and soda. They serve to neutralise the acidity engendered by the fermentation, and to maintain the liquor in the state of alkalinity essential for bringing the indigo white into solution. In addition, they retard fermentation, and therefore afford a means of regulating the progress of this operation.

The woad vats are usually round in shape, measuring about eighty inches across and eight feet in depth, and are set about two-thirds in the ground; for yarn-dyeing they are mostly square.

The vats are started by powdering the woad, mixing it into a paste with boiling water and leaving to stand for some time, after which it is introduced into the vat, filled with water, the madder, bran, lime, soda, and ground indigo being then added. The proportions employed are—woad, 220–330 lb.; indigo, 11 lb.; madder, 33 lb.; bran, 33 lb.; lime, $4\frac{1}{2}$ lb.; soda, 22 lb. The vat is now heated to 100° C., stirred up well, and covered up, after the fire has been drawn, in order to keep warm as long as possible—an essential condition for the inception of fermentation. After standing twenty-four hours the vat is uncovered to see whether fermentation has begun, which will be the case if the liquor “works,” *i.e.* throws up a number of small bubbles; whilst the initially blue colour of the liquid has now become a yellowish green, a blue scum floats on the surface, and the smell has changed. Should these indications be absent, the vat is covered up again and left to itself for some time longer before being reinspected. As a rule, the woad

vat will have begun to ferment in two to three days, though the actual time may vary according to the time of year.

When fermentation has commenced, the vat is limed by adding finely sifted slaked lime at intervals of two to three hours, stirring the contents up well after each addition. By this means the acidity produced during the fermentation is neutralised, and the fermentation restrained at the same stage for some time, in order to bring the whole of the indigo into solution. The newly started vat cannot be used for dyeing immediately, because at this stage the fermentation and the solution of the indigo are only just begun; in fact, the vat is not fit for use until it has been limed several times and a large proportion of the indigo has been brought into solution. The vat in this stage exhibits the following characteristic indications:—The vat liquor is olive green in colour, and carries on its surface a layer of copper-blue scum, the “bloom,” $\frac{1}{2}$ –1 inch deep; the smell is peculiar and faintly ammoniacal; and, where the separated scum has left the surface visible, a number of blue “veins” appear. When the vat has arrived at this stage, it must be used at once for dyeing, and not left any longer, otherwise the fermentation will proceed at the expense of the indigo. The woad vat can be kept in use for several months in succession, provided it be maintained in good condition in the following manner, the process, however, being one of the most difficult tasks the dyer has to perform:—After dyeing a whole day, the vat is reinforced in the evening by the addition of a certain quantity of madder, syrup, and lime, then heated, well stirred up, and left covered up all night for use the following day. In order to replace the loss of indigo sustained in dyeing, an addition of this dye-stuff must also be made at intervals every day or second day.

The two extremes to be avoided are excessive fermentation owing to an insufficiency of lime, and a cessation of fermentation through an excess of that adjunct. The former condition, known as mildness, because of the sweetish odour evolved, can be remedied by adding lime at intervals until the smell and appearance resume their normal condition. If, on the other hand, the vat contain too much lime, it is considered to be sharp, and will smell strongly of ammonia, in which event the excess of lime must be neutralised by a gradual addition of acid, the fermentation being restarted by the aid of bran. Unless excessive fermentation be checked in time by adding lime, the colour will be wasted; and the final condition of a sharp vat is blackening. In either event, it is often impossible to remedy the defect, and the liquor has to be run to waste. This can, however, be avoided by careful supervision; the dyer must be able at any time to tell, from the appearance, smell, and behaviour

during dyeing, whether the vat needs an addition of lime or a ferment.

Vat-dyeing is performed at a medium temperature (about 50° C.), and in this case, more than any other method of dyeing, great care is necessary to see that the goods are thoroughly damped beforehand. The scum must be removed before entering the goods. Loose wool is invariably dyed in circular vats, the wool being enclosed in a net, completely immersed in the vat liquor, and worked about therein by means of sticks. After about an hour it is lifted and well squeezed to express the excess of liquor. At this stage the colour is green and has to be developed into blue by oxidation, for which purpose the wool is thrown in a heap on the floor and shovelled over so as to expose all parts to the air. If the vat is in good condition the lifted wool will have a yellowish green shade, which afterwards turns dark green before arriving at the blue stage, the latter being attained gradually. If the change occurs too quickly, the vat is too sharp; and converse behaviour indicates excessive mildness, the condition of the bath being thus determinable by dyeing a small sample and observing its behaviour after lifting. Occasionally such parts of the wool as have not come in contact with the air remain quite white. The development of the blue will be complete in about a quarter of an hour, whereupon the wool can be re-entered in the vat if a darker shade is required.

To produce a bright light blue, a fairly fresh vat is essential, and this must contain less lime, and consequently more soda, than usual. However, the vat should not be quite fresh, since the first parcel dyed in the vat is always dull and muddy in colour, in consequence of the dun-coloured pigments of the madder and the woad. Finally, this vat must be rather weak in indigo.

To match a dark blue exactly to pattern, the goods must first be blued in a strong vat until the desired shade is nearly attained, and then finished in a weak vat.

Yarns are suspended on smooth sticks, then immersed in the vat liquor, and kept well worked about therein, after which they are lifted, squeezed, and left to blue.

For piece dyeing, the vat is fitted with an attachment which enables the goods to be kept in motion all the time and below the surface of the liquor. At the end of one to three hours, according to the strength of the vat and the depth of colour to be produced, the pieces are unwound and the superfluous liquor squeezed out between rollers. To develop the colour the pieces are alternately folded and opened out, and are finally washed. Vatted pieces must not be left for any length of time in a warm place before washing, or they will be liable to turn mouldy.

The other fermentation vats are managed and applied in the same way as the woad vat, but, as they are of little practical importance, no further description is necessary.

Frequently, in order to save indigo, vatted goods are topped with logwood, for which purpose they are first mordanted with alum, copper sulphate, potassium bitartrate, and oxalic acid, and then dyed with logwood. In other cases, however, they are mordanted in the same manner as for logwood blue (*q.v.*), which is a decided irrational process, the greater part of the indigo on the fibre being destroyed by boiling in the bichromate bath. These dyeings are known as "semi-fast blue," being less fast to light than vat blue.

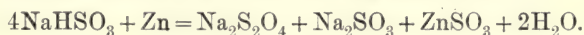
Occasionally the topping with logwood is only intended to secure better equalisation of the dye, uniformity being difficult to obtain on piece goods in vat dyeing.

To produce a semi-fast blue with a blackish appearance, which though less brilliant than, is quite as fast to light as, true vat blue, and is also fast to wear, the goods are first blued in the vat, then boiled with santal, and afterwards vatted anew.

To impart a vivid appearance to vatted piece goods, they may be topped with a small quantity of methyl violet or archil.

The Hyposulphite Vat.—This vat is dealt with in connection with the fermentation vats, inasmuch as it also is used warm and is chiefly employed in wool-dyeing.

The hyposulphite vat is based on the property of the hydrothionic acid discovered by Schützenberger, of forming with indigo a colourless double compound, which is soluble in alkalis and is decomposed by the weakest oxidising agents, indigo blue being thereby liberated. For practical use, the sodium salt of hydrothionic acid is prepared by allowing zinc dust to act on the bisulphite in a tightly closed vessel, the mixture being kept stirred and cooled. The reaction is complete within about an hour, and is probably well expressed by the following equation:—



The hyposulphite solution is rendered slightly alkaline with milk of lime, in order to diminish its instability, and is then ready for use. It is preferably stored under a gas seal. A stock solution of indigo is then prepared by heating 1 part of ground purified strong indigo with 4 parts of hyposulphite to 80° C. for some little time. Of the resulting yellow-brown solution, a definite quantity, depending on the depth of blue desired, is added to the vat along with hyposulphite.

Wool is dyed in the hyposulphite vat at 50–60° C., a temper-

ature that must not be exceeded by more than a few degrees. At the outset the vat liquor will be bluish grey in colour, and does not dye so well as when it has changed to yellowish green; in fact, in this first stage it behaves like a sharp woad vat.

In worsted dyeing, the hyposulphite vat plays the most important part in the production of light shades that cannot be obtained in the same degree of beauty by means of the fermentation vats; consequently this method of application will be described first.

The vat, filled with hot water, is first charged with the necessary quantity of stock solution and commercial hyposulphite solution at the rate of about 3 gals. per 1100 gals. of vat liquor; after being well stirred up the vat is ready for dyeing. In the case of very light shades, the principal consideration is perfect equalisation, and this depends on two circumstances—(1) the well-damped yarn must be carefully separated into individual hanks, each of which is then suspended from a separate very smooth hazel rod; (2) the conversion of the green dyeing into blue must be performed in the most careful manner possible, as described in detail below. If these conditions are not properly fulfilled, the colours will be uneven and mixed.

The rods laden with yarn are set side by side in a wooden frame, without touching one another, the whole being then slowly dipped into the vat. Here they are turned by hand at intervals, and remain until it is quite certain that the absorption of dye has ceased. This is necessary, because the hanks cannot be all taken out at the same time, but must be lifted in succession; and, since it is essential that the whole parcel should be uniform in depth of colour, no opportunity can be allowed for any of the hanks to absorb more dye than the rest.

The absorption will be complete in about half an hour, whereupon the hanks are lifted from the vat one after another, rapidly squeezed, and then rinsed in cold water in the following manner:—Three or four tanks, about 10 feet long by 40 inches wide, are placed in a row close by the vat, and through these the yarn is passed in succession, being opened by a pair of workers in the first tank, worked round, taken over, and treated in a similar way by a second pair of workers, and thereby advanced a stage, the operations being repeated until the end of the last tank in the row is reached, whereupon the yarn is squeezed and drained in the hydro-extractor.

The object of this treatment is to remove the superfluous vat liquor from the yarn as quickly as possible, and enable the blueing process to proceed gradually. The water in the said tanks must be renewed at intervals during the progress of the work; this applies particularly to the first tank, since this receives the largest

quantity of vat liquor. The changing can be effected by making the feed and discharge continuous.

The colour of the freshly lifted yarn is yellow, changing to green in the first rinsing tank, and then gradually turning blue, the change not being quite complete till the yarn has passed through the hydro-extractor.

In this manner the palest blue shades can be obtained in perfect uniformity and clearness, the possibility of which forms the chief advantage of the hyposulphite vat.

Before dyeing a second parcel of yarn in the once-used vat, the latter is replenished with indigo solution and hyposulphite (about 1.32 gal. of this last per 1100 gals. of vat liquor).

In dyeing dark shades the proportion of indigo solution and hyposulphite must be increased, *e.g.* for 6.6 lb. of indigo $5\frac{1}{2}$ gals. of hyposulphite. After dyeing for about half a day, a further quantity of about $3\frac{1}{2}$ gals. of hyposulphite must be added.

For dyeing piece goods the vat is fitted with an appliance for keeping the pieces in motion, as in the case of the woad vat, and, after dyeing, the pieces are conveyed to the rinsing tanks over a set of guide rollers. Loose wool is dyed as in the woad vat.

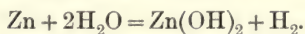
About 4 cwt. of wool per diem can be dyed medium blue in a hyposulphite vat measuring 10 feet in depth and $6\frac{1}{2}$ feet in diameter.

Quite a dark blue can be easily and quickly produced in the vat by an addition of acetic acid, it being unnecessary for the vat liquor to be strong. However, the dye-bath in this case cannot be used again.

In addition to the already quoted advantages of the hyposulphite vat come the following, which render it the most perfect vat for wool-dyeing:—Easy manipulation; non-necessity for supervision, since it may be laid aside to rest at any time; can be used for dyeing as soon as set; no sediment is formed except the dirt deposited by the wool; the resulting blue is perfectly fast to washing—at least in light shades—and does not rub off.

On the other hand, the hyposulphite vat is very little used for cotton-dyeing, and then only at low temperatures—about 25–30° C.

What the woad vat is for wool, the zinc vat is for cotton and linen. It has for the most part displaced the old vitriol vat, and is now almost the only vat used for cotton-dyeing. Its action is based on the property possessed by zinc dust, of readily decomposing water in presence of an alkali, and combining with the liberated oxygen, whilst the hydrogen reduces the indigo blue to indigo white, which is immediately dissolved by the alkali—



Lime is the alkali generally used here.

A stock vat is first set by mixing together 10 parts of ground indigo, 7 parts of zinc dust, and 20 parts of lime, to form a pulp with water and leaving the whole to ferment in a tub. In about twenty-four hours the process of reduction will be complete, whereupon a portion of the contents of the stock vat is transferred to the dye vat, stirred up in the cold water with which the latter is filled, and left at rest until the liquor has clarified, by which time the vat will be fit for use. The zinc vat varies in size and shape, but in the usual round form the ratio between depth and diameter is about $2\frac{1}{2} : 1$.

The appearance of the zinc vat differs little from that of the woad vat, whilst the management is much easier, all that is necessary being an occasional replenishing from the stock vat or an addition of zinc dust or lime. If the vat liquor be green, too much indigo is present; if yellow, too little. When there is a deficiency of lime the vat becomes turbid through the evolution of hydrogen. After

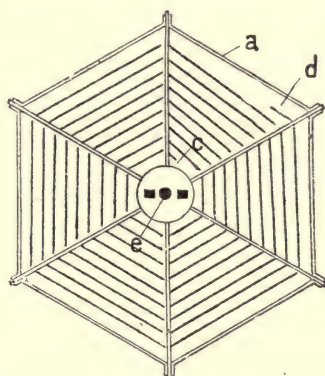
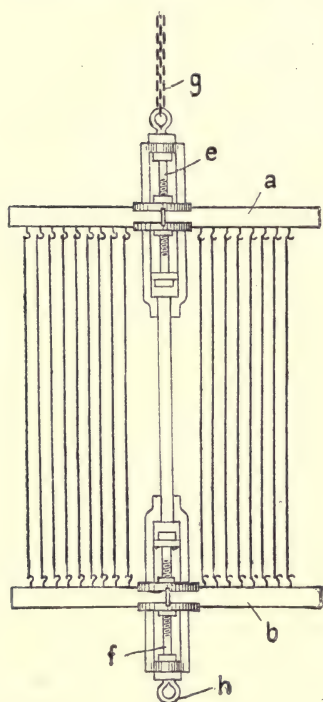


FIG. 26.

each addition to the vat the liquor must be stirred up and then left to settle before use.

Cotton may be dyed in this vat in all stages of manufacture; most frequently in piece form, less often as yarn. The piece of cloth to be dyed is wound on the frame shown in Fig. 26 in such a manner as to preclude contact between any two adjacent layers; and, after the scum has been removed from the vat, the frame is immersed in the liquor and kept therein for five to ten minutes. The frame is then lifted and kept in the air for an equal time, in

order to develop the colour. If the goods be dyed in several dips, the frame must be reversed after each, or else the lower part of the cloth will come out darker than the rest. After dyeing follows "souring," which consists in entering the cloth, full width, in sulphuric acid of about 2° B. density, to remove adherent calcium carbonate and consequently brighten the colour. The operation is completed by washing. The indigo dissolved in the processes of souring and washing must be recovered.

If the blue be desired to have a coppery appearance, the goods must be dried by heat. The brilliancy of the colour may be improved by methylene blue and methyl violet, these being, however, applied in the dressing, and not in the dyeing process.

Frequently, and especially in yarn-dyeing, the operation of vatting is preceded by a bottoming with some other dye. This is primarily intended to economise indigo, but the goods are also dyed through better, and sometimes also the tendency of the vat blue to rub off is diminished by this means. The dyes used for this purpose are Columbia-black R, diamine black, Chicago-blue, benzo blue-black, etc. In small dyeworks topping with logwood is often practised, the dyed cotton being treated in a bath of logwood, alum, and copper sulphate, or else first entered in a solution of iron pyrolignite and then dyed with logwood and alum.

Finally, it may be mentioned that the dyed yarns are often treated in a hot chalk bath, which diminishes the tendency of the colour to rub off.

The most important improvement in piece dyeing was the introduction of the continuous vat, a process wherein the alternate dipping and lifting of the goods is effected in a continuous manner by leading the cloth upwards and downwards over a series of rollers, partly in and partly out of the vat. The roulette vat is a kind of double vat, the dyeing process corresponding to a double passage through the continuous vat.

The continuous vat process is superior to the older method in every respect; the blue is handsomer and better fixed; less indigo is lost in the washing, and, owing to the pressure of the squeezing rollers, the goods are dyed through better and a better green is obtained; moreover, there are fewer light patches, and even dead cotton is dyed. For discharge effects this vat alone is employed, on account of the necessity for having a handsomer blue than is required when the goods are of one colour throughout.

The vitriol vat is set with indigo, ferrous sulphate, and lime; the management and application are the same as for the zinc vat. Over the latter it possesses a single, but not unimportant, advantage, namely, that the blue is fixed better, owing to the slower rate of

dyeing. In all other respects it is inferior to the zinc vat, so that nowadays it is but seldom used.

The indigo-indigophenol vat is set in a similar manner to the hyposulphite vat. Its advantage consists in replacing a portion of the indigo by the cheaper indigophenol. It is, however, not very easy to manage, owing to the difficulty in regulating the addition of hyposulphite, and has not attained any practical importance.

Dyes competing with Indigo.—Attempts have been made to supersede indigo, for wool-dyeing, by a number of blue mordant dyes, such as alizarine blue, anthracene blue, alizarine cyanine, brilliant alizarine cyanine, etc., with some degree of success; and at the present time a number of dyeings that were formerly performed with indigo exclusively are carried out with these substitutes.

The superiority of indigo over these rivals consists in the handsomer and fuller appearance, conjoined with the unsurpassed fastness of the colours to light. True, indigo fades a little under the influence of light; nevertheless, the blue, even in the lightest shades, always retains its handsome, bright tone, which is not the case with the other dyes mentioned. In fact, the latter can only replace indigo for dark shades, leaving it unrivalled for light blues, especially since the introduction of the hyposulphite vat.

A dye largely used of late is Bayer's sulphocyanine, by reason of its excellent fastness to wear and resemblance to indigo in colour.

For cotton-dyeing a number of basic dyes, such as indoine, naphthindone, diazine blue, new blue, indamine blue, indophenine, meta- and paraphenylene blue, etc., have been employed to imitate indigo. However, when subjected to test, the resulting dyeings are far inferior in fastness to indigo, and the superiority of the latter becomes still more apparent. Under the action of acids, bleaching powder, washing, and light, indigo dyeings suffer merely quantitative alteration, the brilliant blue colour remaining unchanged. The rival dyes, on the other hand, mostly become discoloured, often reddish grey, and, in the dark shades, mostly rub off quite as much as vat dyeings. The best of these substitutes is indoine blue (B.A.S.F.) which is identical with naphthindone (C.) and diazine blue (Kalle).

Dianisidine blue is incapable of replacing indigo for piece cottons, on account of its deficient fastness to acid; and, moreover, this dye is difficult to equalise. On the other hand, the developed or coppered dyeings of certain of the substantive dye-stuffs, such as diaminogen (C.), diazo blue R (By.), diamine blue RW (C.), etc., which are very fast to light and washing, give promise of becoming useful substitutes for indigo.

Other dyes largely used for the production of dark indigo blue

dyeings are various kinds of diamine black, either direct dyed or developed, as well as direct-dyed diazo black and diamine blue BX.

6. Application of the Developing Dyes.

The developing dyes are not purchasable in the finished condition, but are produced on the fibre. They are applied solely to cotton, and are distinguished by their fastness. They are divided into three groups—(1) the ice colours; (2) aniline black; (3) mineral dyeings.

Before proceeding to a special description, the following observations should be made:—The first stage in the production of these dyeings on piece goods consists in bringing the dissolved potential dye-stuff upon the fibre by padding, squeezing, and drying. In performing these operations it must always be borne in mind that the amount of the substance thus brought on the fibre depends not only on the strength of the solution, but also on the pressure of the squeezing rollers employed, which must therefore receive particular attention.

The name “ice colours” is applied to a series of insoluble azo dyes, which are produced on the fibre, from their components, by the aid of ice as a cooling agent. The first processes of this kind were those described in the patents of Read, Holliday, & Sons, of Huddersfield (1880), and Fr. Grässler. Great difficulties had, however, to be overcome in applying the method on a large scale, and it was not until the end of the eighties that J. J. Weber, of Winterthur, succeeded in producing a red from amidoazobenzol and β -naphthol on the fibre, on a manufacturing scale. Credit is also due to the Hoechst Farbwerke in particular, in connection with the further extension of these dyes, which, thanks to their cheapness and beauty, now play a very important part.

The method actually practised is briefly as follows:—The well-bleached cotton pieces are padded with a solution of β -naphthol in caustic soda, then dried, and afterwards passed through a solution of a diazotised amine, cooled by means of ice. The chief dyeings are—

Scarlet	with <i>p</i> -nitraniline;
Bordeaux	„ <i>a</i> -naphthylamine;
Brown	„ benzidine sulphate, with or without addition of <i>a</i> -naphthylamine;
Blue	„ dianisidine.

In addition, for reds, there are azophore red, nitrosamine red, phenetidine red, and, for a yellowish Turkey-red, β -naphthylamine;

for blue, azophore blue; and for fast garnet, amidoazotoluol,—to be considered as amines. Moreover, blacks have latterly been produced by this process, use being made of “azo black base” (M.L.Br.), consisting of a mixture of dianisidine and benzidine; as well as azotol C (C.), either of which gives a black with β -naphthol; as also the combination of nitraniline and naphthol BD (C.).

The different manufacturers of dye-stuffs are busily endeavouring to increase the number of these dyes and to improve those already known. This applies particularly to nitraniline red and dianisidine blue, the endeavour being to produce the former in a more bluish tinge, similar to Turkey-red, whilst with dianisidine blue the endeavour is to improve its worst quality—the lack of fastness to perspiration.

For red shades, the solution of β -naphthol in caustic soda receives an addition of Turkey-red oil and sodium aluminate, or, in place of the latter, para soap PN; for blue, the adjuncts consist of ammonium ricinolate and sodium acetate, tragacanth being added in all other cases. The caustic soda employed for red must be *pure*, since this gives a dye less tinged with yellow and less liable to rub off. In the case of bluish reds, β -naphthol is replaced by naphthol R, and for blue to stand the influence of perspiration, naphthol D.

After the pieces have been padded with the preparation, they are dried, as thoroughly as possible, in the hot flue at a temperature of 60° C.; the better the drying, the fuller the resulting colour and the lower the tendency to rub off, though the use of high temperatures must be avoided or the naphthol will be vaporised. The goods cannot be treated with the preparation long in advance, but must be further treated as soon as possible afterwards—at any-rate during the same day,—or partial browning may ensue.

The stability of the preparation can also be improved by the addition of an antimony salt dissolved in glycerine (Lauber & Caberti's patent); and a preparation of this kind is met with in commerce under the name of naphthol LC. Probably other alkaline reducing agents would also have the same effect.

In preparing the diazo solution of the amine for the developing bath, the amine is generally dissolved in hot hydrochloric acid and water, then cooled with cold water and mixed with a solution of sodium nitrite, accompanied with lumps of ice. The nitrous acid of the sodium nitrite is liberated by the excess of hydrochloric acid, and converts the amine into the corresponding diazo compound. Ten minutes, or even longer in some cases, should be allowed for the completion of diazotisation; the liquid is then filtered, and the

hydrochloric acid, which would retard the coupling process, is neutralised by the addition of a cold solution of sodium acetate immediately before use.

In so far as the diazo solution contains an excess of free mineral acid, it is fairly stable, and can also be prepared without ice. After the addition of sodium acetate, however, it becomes readily decomposable.

For some browns, tragacanth is added to the developing bath; and for dianisidine blue a solution of copper chloride is added in addition to tragacanth and wheaten flour, the colour being thereby rendered greener and faster to light. According to the recipe of the Hoechst Farbwerke, chromic acid should be added as well, in order to improve the fastness to perspiration and brighten the colour.

To produce the azo dye on the fibre the fabric, prepared with naphthol, is passed more or less slowly through the developing bath, and then either led direct into water, or else carried through the air for some distance, in order to allow sufficient time for the completion of the coupling process, which varies with the different dyes; sometimes the goods must be left as long as a quarter of an hour before washing. The dianisidine and azophore blues furnish brighter colours, of more greenish tinge, when the development is performed in two baths, in which case the second bath contains only the sodium acetate required for neutralising the hydrochloric acid. A passage through the Mather and Platt apparatus is particularly desirable for the full development of these colours, this treatment also making them greener in shade and faster to perspiration.

The rapid oxidation apparatus of Mather and Platt, or, as it is generally termed for short, "the Mather and Platt," is a continuous steaming apparatus, and is largely used in calico-printing. In the view of this apparatus shown in Fig. 27, *a* is an iron case of circular or quadrangular section, through which the goods *i*, from *h*, are passed over stretching rods *k*, *l*, and guide rollers *n*, *o*, in an ascending and descending direction, by means of the two sets of rotating rollers *b*, *b*₁, and are finally discharged through the same aperture above the rollers *p*, *q*, to be laid on the table *x*, by the folding device *u*, *v*, *w*. The rate at which the goods are moved forward is usually regulated so that they remain in the apparatus about one minute.

Other details represented in the figure are—1, the steam admission valve; *y*, the perforated steam-pipe; *z*, a false bottom; 2, the waste steam valve; *g*, a small steam-engine; *h*, a belt pulley; *f*, a fly-wheel; and *d*, a belt pulley, with the speed gear *o*.

The copper pipes situated at the inlet and outlet aperture for

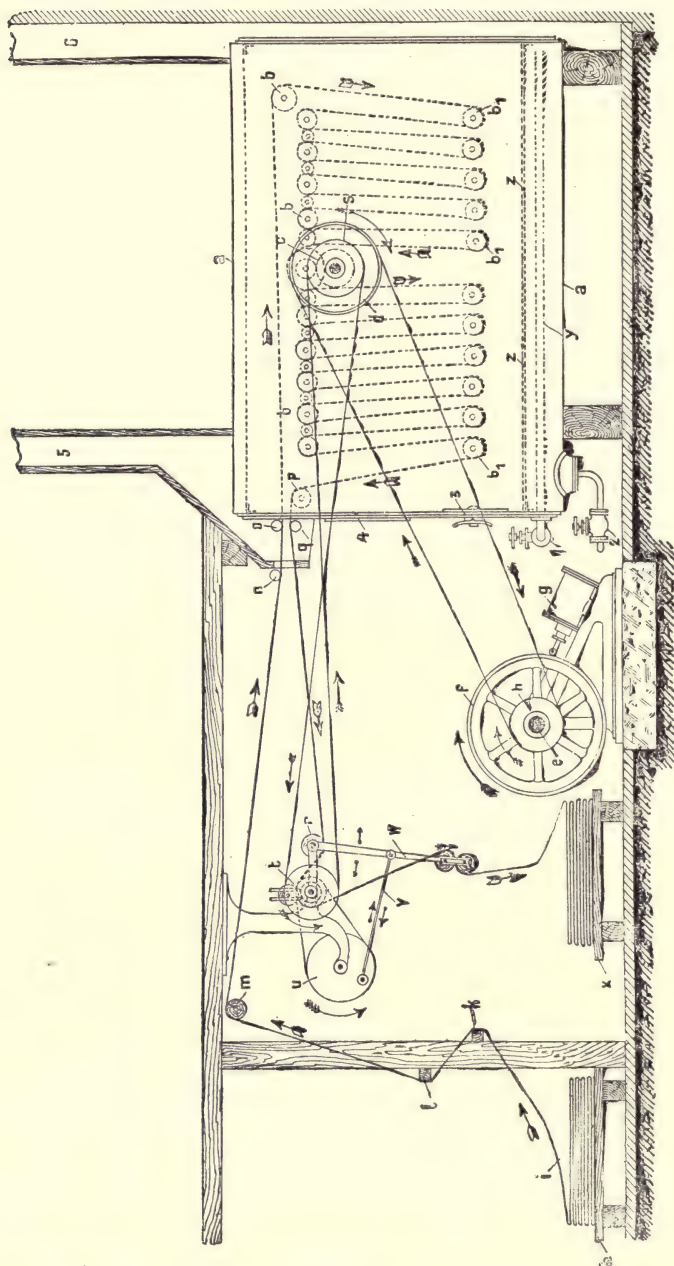


Fig. 27.

the goods are also heated with steam, to prevent wet stains arising from condensation.

The final operation in all these dyeings is a soaping at $60^{\circ}\text{C}.$;

in the case of reds an addition* of soda is advisable at this stage, to give the colour a more bluish tinge.

The dyeing of nitrosamine red is performed in a somewhat different manner, by reason of its constitution, both the components being brought on the fibre at the same time by entering the goods in an alkaline solution of β -naphthol, nitrosamine, tragacanth, and Turkey-red oil. They are then immediately dried, and left for fourteen hours for the colour to develop.

Sundry practical difficulties are encountered in the dyeing of yarns with ice dyes, but these have mostly been overcome, especially in the case of nitraniline red.

Aniline black is the handsomest and fastest black for cotton, and has been the subject of more research and description than probably any other dye. It is applied to unbleached raw cotton, and can also be dyed on dressed cotton, the advantage of this latter process being that the colour is brighter through not being covered over by the dressing.

Aniline black is produced by the oxidation of an aniline salt in two different ways, and we therefore have oxidation black and single-bath aniline black. The former and older method was first applied to calico-printing and afterwards transferred to the dyeing industry. The material is padded with a solution containing an aniline salt and oxidising agent, sal ammoniac (as hygroscopic), and generally also a carrier of oxygen, after which it is dried, the black being then developed by warm hanging or steaming, chroming, and soaping. The aniline salt generally used is aniline chloride, which should be as pure and free from toluidine as possible. The quantity employed in practice varies very considerably, the average being about 100 parts, by weight, per 1000, although a useful quantity can be obtained with 80 parts. The oxidising agent consists of sodium- or potassium-chlorate or a mixture of the two. In the different recipes employed in practice the average ratio between the chlorate (reckoned as sodium chlorate) to the aniline chloride is as 0.4 : 1.0. The oxygen carrier employed is a solution of vanadium or precipitated copper sulphide. Vanadium can be replaced by cerium, which is said to give the finest black. The preparation may be made by dissociating the cheap mineral cerite with sulphuric acid. The vanadium solution is prepared by dissolving 20 grms. of commercial ammonium metavanadate in 100 c.c. of hydrochloric acid and 200 c.c. of water, warming along with commercial bisulphite until blue coloration and complete solution occur, and then diluting to 20 litres ($4\frac{1}{2}$ gals.). This solution will then contain 1 part per 1000, by weight, of ammonium vanadate as chlorate (H. Schmidt).

The copper sulphide is prepared as follows:—11 lb. of flowers of sulphur are well mixed with $4\frac{1}{2}$ gals. of 36° B. caustic soda and left for a few days until completely dissolved, gentle heat being applied if necessary; on the other hand, 53 lb. of copper sulphate are dissolved in 55 gals. of water and added to the above solution of sodium sulphide, the precipitate being collected on a flat linen filter and well washed with hot water. The precipitation should not be effected from a concentrated solution, or the sulphide will go down as coarse granules, enveloping a portion of the copper sulphate solution, which would then rapidly decompose the padding solution (Kielmeyer). The copper sulphide paste must be protected from air by covering it with a little ammonium sulphide; should oxidation nevertheless occur, the sulphide must be placed on a filter and washed with ammonium sulphide and water.

The quantity of oxygen carrier required depends on the amount of aniline and oxidising agent employed, and also on the way in which the development is effected; the more oxygen carrier taken the more rapidly does the colour develop. According to Witz, one part of vanadium chloride is sufficient to convert 200,000 parts of aniline salt into black; in practice, however, a larger proportion is taken: a few milligrams per litre of padding solution. The copper sulphide paste, which is about 30 per cent. strength, is used in the proportion of about 10 grms. per litre (1 per cent.). The action of the vanadium is explained by assuming the formation of a readily decomposable chlorate—that of the copper sulphide by the formation of copper sulphate.

To prepare the padding solution, each of the above-named ingredients is dissolved separately in water (the copper sulphide used being merely stirred up in water), and the resulting solutions mixed in a cold state; the oxygen carrier must not be added until just before use. If copper sulphide be taken, the solution must contain some thickening ingredients, otherwise a sediment would be formed. The material to be dyed is then padded with a prepared solution, dried at the ordinary temperature, and, in order to start the oxidation, is then either passed through a Mather and Platt at a rate of about 60–100 yards a minute, or left for about two days in a slightly humid oxidising chamber at $25\text{--}30^{\circ}\text{C}$. Nowadays the former method is most in use; the other required some skill to carry out properly.

The pieces placed in the oxidising chamber must be neither too dry nor too damp, since in the former case the colour develops badly and gives a dull brownish black, and, in the other case, development goes on too quickly. The development of the black is

retarded by draught or by too long a sojourn in the cold chamber, the reason for this being a partial volatilisation of the aniline and crystallising of the chlorate so that it can no longer oxidise. The piece turns a progressively darker green in the chamber owing to the formation of emeraldine, and when this shade has reached a certain intensity, further sojourn in the chamber is dangerous, the acid from the aniline salt rotting the fibre. On removing the pieces from the chamber the colour is developed by chroming, after which they are washed and finally soaped hot.

Chroming is effected in various ways, the amount of chromate used ranging from one-fifth to ten grams per litre, in direct relation to the depth of black required. Chroming may be performed in an acid or in an alkaline solution. In the former case the average proportion is one molecule of sulphuric acid to one molecule of potassium bichromate, the material being treated in this solution for about ten minutes at 80°C ., or it is treated in a similar fashion (sometimes in the cold) in a solution of chromate rendered alkaline by soda, in which latter event a subsequent soaping is advantageous, though not essential. A good oxidation black can also be produced in the following manner without any oxygen carrier:—The goods are padded in a solution containing 6 per cent. of aniline oil, 6 per cent. of hydrochloric acid, 2 per cent. of copper sulphate, 2 per cent. of potassium chlorate, and 2 per cent. of sal ammoniac (these quantities being reckoned on the weight of cotton to be dyed), then dried, and developed in the oxidising chamber at a temperature not above 27°C ., chromed, oiled, dried, and washed. In the introduction of oxidation black in yarn-dyeing, considerable difficulties had to be overcome; in particular, uniform oxidation in the warm chamber only became possible upon the construction of special reels on which the spread-out yarn is caused to rotate. Even now only a few works are fitted up for dyeing yarn in this manner, and for producing the so-called diamond black.

There are two disadvantages attending on oxidation black; in the first place, the hydrochloric acid of the aniline salt always more or less strongly corrodes the cotton fibre, and, where the work is carelessly done, this may extend to a complete rotting of the goods. The second drawback is that the colour turns green after a short time. This change on the part of aniline black apparently results from the formation of emeraldine by reduction, and is the more retarded the deeper the black. An absolutely unchangeable black does not exist. Frequently, in order to improve the colour and mask the change to green, the black is topped with methyl violet. Oxidation black is also produced on any silk goods in just the same way as on cotton, and is generally topped with methylene

blue. Considerable advance in this branch has lately resulted from the introduction of the so-called Prudhomme's black. The *modus operandi* is similar to the later methods, except that potassium ferrocyanide is added to the padding solution. This salt reacts on the aniline chloride, forming aniline ferrocyanide and potassium chloride. It differs from the above-described oxidation black, inasmuch as the fibre is not corroded, the hydrochloric acid being combined with potassium, and that the development of the dye proceeds more gradually: a great advantage in the production of printed goods. The quantity of potassium ferrocyanide depends chiefly on the amount of aniline, the average being about 50 grms. per litre (5 per cent. by weight) of padding solution; no oxygen carrier is required. The goods are first padded, then dried in a current of hot air by passing through a small chamber, and finally developed as in the older processes.

Single-Bath Aniline Black has long been largely used for dyeing loose cotton and yarns, and more recently extended to cotton in warps.

As the name implies, the dye is produced by dyeing the cotton in a single bath; this contains aniline chloride, potassium bichromate, and hydrochloric acid. Some dyers use, instead of hydrochloric, sulphuric acid, or a mixture of the two; and hydrofluoric acid has also been proposed for this purpose (Thiess & Cleff). Others again replace a portion of the chromate by copper sulphate.

The proportions of these reagents vary within wide limits.

As far as the aniline salt is concerned, the quantity depends entirely on the depth of black required, and therefore is limited by consideration of expense. In practice, for this reason, not more than about 11 per cent. of aniline salt or 8 per cent. of aniline oil can be used; even with 8 per cent. of the salt a very good black can be obtained. The average quantity of bichromate is from 1.3 to 1.6 parts per part of aniline salt. Finally, the quantity of acid used differs so considerably in the various recipes that no average figures can be given. Nevertheless, it is irrational to employ more than 12 per cent. of hydrochloric acid; and 8 to 10 per cent. would generally be sufficient.

The dyeing process is performed as follows:—The ingredients are dissolved separately, and mixed in a perfectly cold state just before use. The dye-bath should be as cool as possible, and used in a wooden vessel, the time of exposure being two to two and a half hours. The black will be less likely to rub off if the acid be added in several portions, and not all at once. The cotton is at first coloured green, then blue, and finally black. In order to better utilise the bath, the temperature may be raised to about

60° C. during the last half-hour. The more concentrated the bath the quicker will the colour develop.

The chief point in this method is to secure the development of the aniline as far as possible in and upon the fibre, and as little as may be in the bath, since the black deposited in the bath adheres only loosely to the cotton, and easily rubs off. A good aniline black bath should therefore remain clear as long as possible, although, towards the end of the operation, a deposit is always formed in the bath.

On leaving the bath, the black is of an ugly brown shade, and must be improved by topping with logwood and hot soap. The logwood is fixed by the chrome deposited on the cotton whilst in the dye-bath.

All single-bath aniline blacks have a more or less pronounced tendency to rub off; they are, however, faster to acid than oxidation black, and do not corrode the fibre. The rubbing-off may be considerably diminished by careful washing, preferably in running water after dyeing. Finally, mention may be made of two modifications of this process. In the one, the single-bath black is produced in a warm bath containing less aniline than usual (about 8 grams per litre); the black, however, easily rubs off, and consequently this method is very seldom used. On the other hand, black is still produced on loose cotton by impregnating the material with a concentrated black bath, and then developing the colour by steaming. No advantageous method has yet been devised for recovering the chrome from the spent black baths.

Of the mineral dyes developed on the fibre the following alone are of any practical importance:—Manganese bistre, iron chamois, Berlin blue, chrome yellow, and orange chrome.

Manganese bistre is largely employed in calico-printing, on account of its fastness and the ease with which it is discharged. The goods are first padded with a solution of manganous chloride that has previously, to a slight extent, been converted into acetate by the addition of a little lead acetate. The concentration of the manganese solution is naturally in direct ratio to the depth of brown to be produced. Next, they are passed through boiling caustic soda of about 17° B. strength; then exposed to the air by passing over guide rollers, and, in the case of dark shades, returned to the soda bath. Finally, to ensure complete oxidation, they are treated in a hot bath containing about $1\frac{1}{2}$ part, by weight, of potassium bichromate per 1000, and then washed.

Very good results can also be obtained with manganous chloride alone, or another organic salt of manganese instead of the acetate, though it is advisable, to secure equalisation of the colour, that part

at least of the manganese should be in the form of acetate. The soda solution should be causticised beforehand with lime, since, if it contain carbonate, there will be formed on the material, in addition to manganese hydroxide, manganese carbonate, which is less easily oxidised and may give rise to irregularities in the colour. For light brown, the alkali may be weaker than that mentioned above. The padding with hot lye is effected in a steam-heated apparatus. In some works the final oxidation is performed with sodium hypochlorite, in the cold, instead of with bichromate.

Iron chamois is only sensitive to acids, being in other respects a very fast dye. The iron salt used is the so-called iron nitrate, or iron acetate, prepared from ferrous sulphate and lead acetate by double decomposition, the displacement of the sulphuric acid of the iron salt by the acetic acid being, however, incomplete. The cheaper iron pyrolignite is not so suitable in this case, its tarry impurities muddying the colour.

Even ferrous sulphate does not give good results. The shade of the chamois can be modified by adding aluminium acetate to the iron solution. The method of dyeing is as follows:—The goods are padded with the iron solution, dried, then left twenty-four hours in the warm oxidation chamber, and afterwards treated, for the precipitation of the hydroxide, in a hot (80° C.) bath, containing about 1 per cent. by weight of chalk and 0.3 per cent. of water glass (sodium silicate). Finally, they are washed, dried, and subjected to steam chemicking (*see* Calico-Printing), which gives the colour a more agreeable tone.

This method, however, is confined to the production of discharge effects in calico-printing, the following being that pursued generally in cotton-dyeing:—The goods are passed in succession through an iron bath, a lime bath, and a chemicking bath containing “chloride of lime,” these baths being contained in vessels similar to those used for the dunging process. After each bath a good squeezing is given to remove the superfluous liquor, and finally the goods are washed.

Berlin-blue is a bright colour, fast to acids and light, and is still used, though only to a limited extent. The goods are prepared by passing them first through a bath of sodium stannate and then through sulphuric acid, after which they are washed and passed alternately through an iron bath and one of potassium ferrocyanide, until the desired shade is attained.

Chrome yellow and orange chrome are still largely used, both on account of their rich bright tone and because they increase the weight of the goods.

Chrome yellow is particularly fast to light, soap, and acids,

though it is turned reddish by alkalis, and brown (lead sulphide) by sulphuretted hydrogen. The same applies to orange chrome, except that this dye is unaffected by alkalis and is stained yellowish by acids. The behaviour of these two pigments towards acids and alkalis is due to their ready conversion one into the other, chrome yellow being transformed into the basic chromate (orange chrome) by alkalis, whilst the latter is reconverted into the yellow normal chromate by acids. Both pigments are poisonous.

Chrome yellow is produced by depositing lead hydroxide or lead sulphate on the fibre, and then converting the compound into lead chromate by potassium bichromate. This is effected in different ways, especially as regards the fixing of the lead on the fibre. For instance, the goods are impregnated in a solution of lime, then treated in a solution of basic lead acetate, and then returned to the lime bath. Of course, a squeezing must be given after each immersion. The use of a basic salt of lead is explained by the chemical reaction, whereby the lime fixes the acid of the lead salt and deposits the hydroxide of lead on the fibre. Other dyers impregnate with a solution of a lead salt, dry, and then pass through a cold solution of ammonia (1 part to 6 of water) for two minutes. Again, the material is padded with a solution of magnesium sulphate, then dried, padded with a solution of basic lead acetate, and then left at rest for the formation of lead sulphate on the fibre. In any case, a good washing is given after the lead treatment, and the goods are then immersed in a solution of potassium bichromate (5–6 parts per 1000) at 50° C. for half an hour, and finally washed.

For the production of orange chrome, the chrome yellow generated on the fibre is "oranged" by treating the goods for half an hour in a boiling-hot bath containing 1 part, by weight, of lime per mil.

The Albumin Dyes are used only in Calico-Printing, and will therefore be described under that heading.

IV. Dyeing on a Manufacturing Scale.

Textile fibres are dyed on a manufacturing scale in the condition of loose material, rove, yarn, and woven fabrics, the latter being the most usual practice on account of the greater convenience and cheapness, it being possible to handle a larger quantity at a time with a smaller expenditure of dye, owing to the more closely compressed condition of the fibres. Dyeing the loose material is the most expensive form of all, there being a greater consumption

of dye, and more waste during spinning and weaving, owing to the more extensive tearing of the fibres that have become more or less closely matted together in the dyeing. Finally, it must also be borne in mind that some dyes, especially those produced by the aid of tin mordants, increase the difficulties of the milling process. Consequently the dyeing of fibres in the loose state is practised only in the case of better class single-colour fabrics, parti-coloured goods with woven designs, or in the production of yarns and fabrics from mixed fibres. By mixing together a number of loose coloured fibres, and then willowing, carding, and spinning the mixture, a series of shades can be produced that give the finished fabric the appearance of a uniformly coloured product.

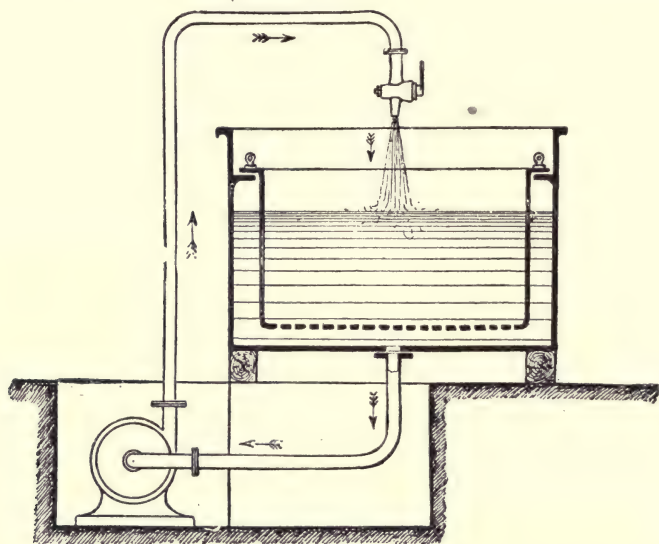


FIG. 28.

In this manner, by an admixture of white fibres with others dyed with dark shades fast to light, a faster light shade can be obtained than is possible by dyeing the whole in the same shade. (*See Fastness of Dyes to Light.*)

In dyeing loose fibres, perfectly soluble dyes and extracts alone are suitable. The vessels employed are generally hemispherical copper vats, the bath being heated by a steam coil under the perforated false bottom. Of late years there is a growing tendency to employ closed vessels, or open vats fitted with a circulation pump (Fig. 28).

Worsted yarn is often dyed in the state of sliver, this condition being more suitable than that of loose wool. The sliver, having

been slightly oiled, must be cleansed before dyeing, for which purpose it is steeped awhile in a very dilute warm solution of soda, then rinsed, and dyed after winding in hank form like yarn. The work must be performed with great care, since the sliver is easily torn and readily felts; the bath must not be boiling hot, nor may the material be worked about too rapidly. The advantage of dyeing in this form rather in the state of yarn, is that any slight inequalities are unimportant, being eradicated during the subsequent spinning process. In order to protect the material, it is now largely the custom to dye the bobbins of sliver or carded fleece in dyeing machines, wherein a circulation of the bath liquor is maintained by suction and pressure, thus forcing the liquor through the material. A typical form of this class of apparatus is the Obermaier revolver shown in Fig. 29.

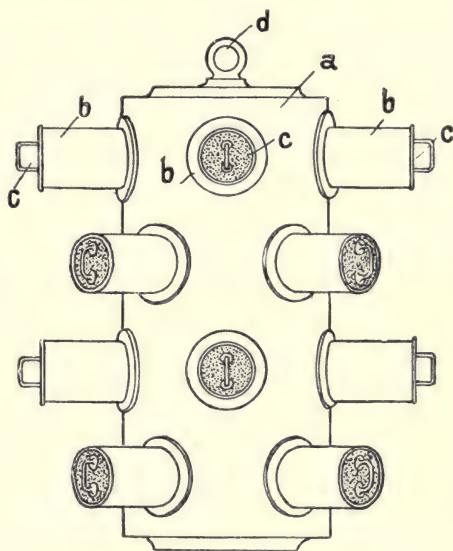


FIG. 29.

This machine consists of the vertical main cylinder *a*, around which are mounted in four horizontal rows a series of small cylinders *b*, each containing a bobbin. At the junction of the bobbin cylinders with the main cylinder are a number of perforations, and similar perforations are made in the lids, *c*, of the bobbin cylinders. In dyeing, the cylinder is placed above the discharge pipe *e*, in the dye-vat *d* (Fig. 30), and the pump is started. The liquor is first forced by the pump into the interior of the main cylinder *a*, thence through the perforations into the bobbin cylinders, where it traverses the material, and thence escapes into the dye-vat. When the tap *g* is closed, the liquor returns to the pump through the raised valve *h*, and the circulation begins anew; when the valve *h* is closed and the tap *g* opened, fresh dye liquor, mordant solution, or water can be run in through the pipe *i*.

The vat is heated by steam-pipes, and is emptied by the tap *h*. This machine can be used for the various successive operations of damping, mordanting, dyeing, and washing, and also for drying

the material by means of hot air. It is advisable to add only one-half the requisite amount of dye at first, then take out the bobbins when the bath is nearly exhausted, and reverse them so that those formerly in the top row are now in the bottom, and so on, the bobbins being also turned end for end in the cylinders.

When these mechanical dye-vats are used, the most soluble dyes should be selected, the materials should be as clean as possible, and the bobbins not too tightly wound.

All fibres are dyed in the condition of yarn, and that, too, more often than the loose state. The general practice is to dye in hanks or in warps, and latterly it has become the custom to also dye in the form of cops, especially in the case of cotton yarn.

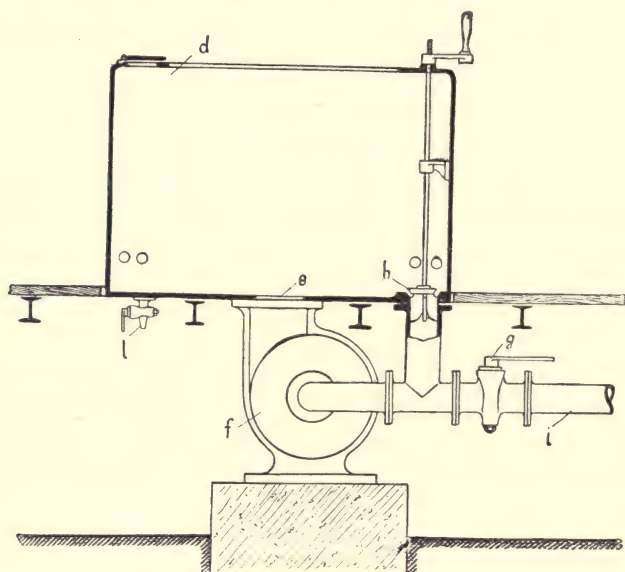


FIG. 30.

Hank yarns are dyed in quadrangular wooden becks (Fig. 31), fitted with a false perforated bottom *b*, underneath which is situated a steam coil *d*, admitting steam to the bath. When, however, the volume of the bath liquor must not be allowed to increase during dyeing—for instance, in dyeing cotton with substantive dyes—a closed steam-pipe is used. The feed steam-pipe *e* must be separated by a wall *c* from the material to be dyed. The method of dyeing is as follows:—The hanks, *g*, are first fastened together by intertwined strings to prevent tangling, and are then hung in rows on smooth rods *f*, arranged crosswise on the edge of the beck. At intervals the hanks must be turned, a row at a time, by passing a rod through the whole row, lifting it out of the liquor, and giving it

about a quarter turn. When it is desired to add more dye to the bath, the depending end of each row of hanks is laid over the adjoining rod. The movement of the bath liquor must not be more than a gentle undulation, in order to prevent tangling or felting in the case of woollen yarn. This defect is also minimised by reducing the period of exposure in the bath.

This method of dyeing entails a good deal of hand labour, on which account numerous hank-dyeing machines have been constructed wherein the yarn carriers are usually caused to rotate by means of toothed wheels, thus turning the yarn mechanically.

For dyeing warps the yarn is conveyed alternately up and down over guide rollers, through several dye-vats in succession.

Cop dyeing has numerous advantages. In the first place, the yarn is delivered from the spinning frame in this condition, which is the most suitable for weaving purposes, whereas, in order to dye

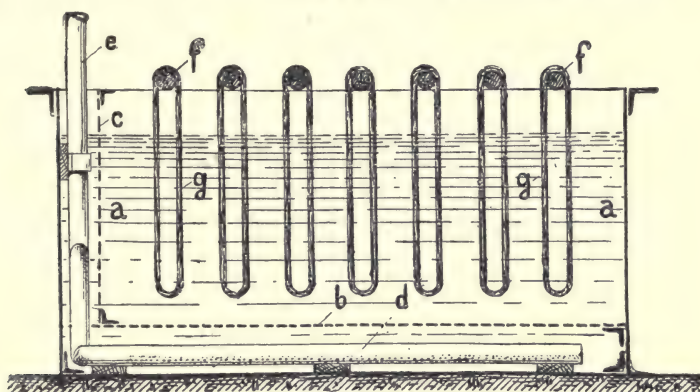


FIG. 31.

the yarn in hanks, it must first be wound into hanks, then dyed, and afterwards rewound into cops, which naturally entails much labour and tends to increase breakage. To prevent all this, a large number of cop-dyeing machines have come into use, though only for cotton, the cop form being unsuitable for dyeing animal fibres owing to the less permeable character of these materials.

Further advantages of these cop-dyeing machines are their higher working capacity, and the possibility of employing softer yarns, which therefore fill up the fabric better.

Readily soluble dyes and simple methods of dyeing alone are suitable for this purpose. For the most part, substantive dyes, the indigo-hyposulphite method, and the Erban and Specht alizarine method, are employed. The difficulties of cop dyeing increase with the number of preparatory operations necessary to the dyeing, and consequently the basic and mordant dyes are little used.

Most of the cop-dyeing machines are based on the principle of forcing the dye liquor through the cops by suction or pressure. The chief thing is to secure equal dyeing, and for this purpose it is therefore necessary that the resistance to be encountered by the liquor should be uniform throughout, in order that it may penetrate equally through all parts of the cops.

Of the numerous types of cop-dyeing machines, only that of Mommer (see Fig. 32) need be mentioned here. The principle of the apparatus is as follows:—The cops to be dyed are formed into

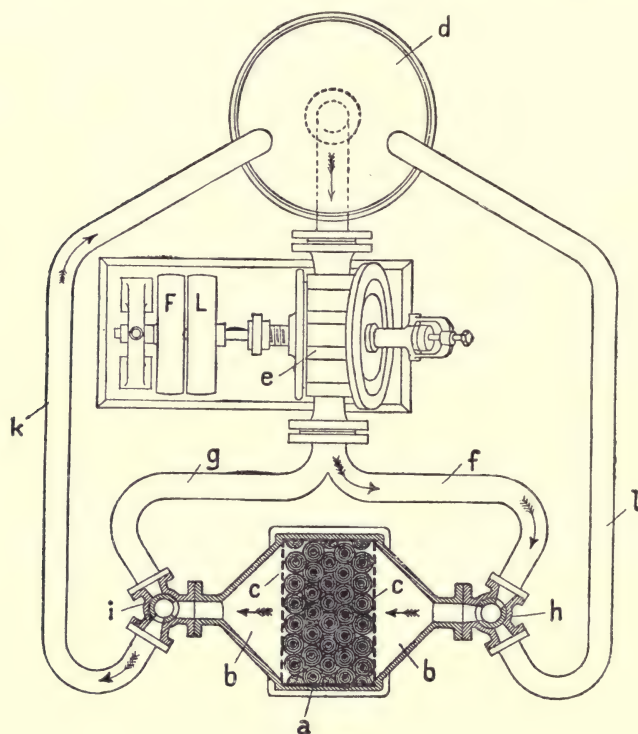


FIG. 32.

a block which presents the same resistance in every direction to the bath liquor. This block, *a*, is formed by placing together a number of frames in which the cops, mounted on heavy spindles, are arranged in parallel rows. Each frame then represents a porous wall of cops, through which the bath liquor can penetrate without difficulty. The block is placed between the two perforated partitions *c* in the closed air-tight chamber *b*, into which the bath liquor is forced by the pump *e* from the vat *d*, through the pipes *f g*, according to the way the taps *h i* are set, so that the liquor traverses the block either from right to left or *vice versa*.

In the position of the taps as shown in the figure, the liquor passes through the tap *h* into the chamber *b*, traverses the block *b*, and returns through the pipe *k* to the dye-vat *d*. The taps can also be set so that the liquor enters the chamber *b* through the pipe *g* and the tap *i*, and, after traversing the block of cops *c*, escapes through the tap *h* and pipe *l* to the vat *d*.

Piece Dyeing.—The only time when this is a disagreeable operation is when the goods are defective and dirty. Many defects do not reveal themselves until after the goods are dyed, especially

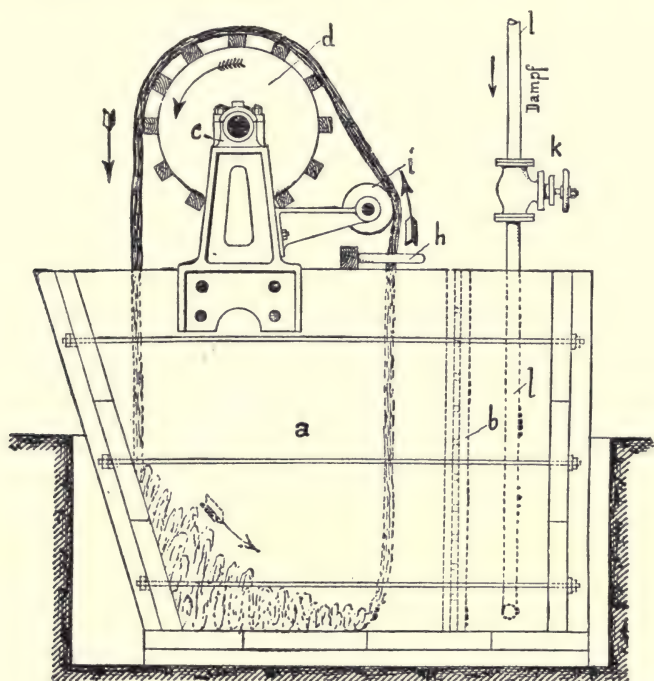


FIG. 33.

when the latter have to pass through a somewhat complex process of manufacture, as is the case with woollen cloth.

In such cases stains appear in the form of cloudy patches or as dark selvages in full-width dyeing, etc., and this most readily happens when small dye-vats are used, where the central portion of the piece is more compressed than the edges, which latter therefore absorb a larger quantity of dye.

A vat wherein all the operations of piece dyeing, such as damp- ing, mordanting, and dyeing, can be performed in succession is shown in Fig. 33. In this apparatus heat is applied through a steam-pipe *l*, which is separated from the goods by a perforated

partition wall *b*. This smaller compartment also serves for the introduction of the added solution of dye.

The pieces are sewn, end to end, in the form of an endless band, and generally reeled like a hank. If to be dyed full width, the piece is kept spread out by the aid of a stick in the hand of an attendant whilst slowly passing through the dye. More frequently several sets of pieces are wound side by side on the same reel, and are kept separated by lattice partitions during their passage through the dye-vat, in order to prevent them from getting mixed on the reel. Cotton goods are dyed in the same way, mostly in hank form.

A machine largely used for dyeing piece cottons is the jigger, Fig. 34. It consists of a simple wooden vat *a*, on to which are screwed the cast-iron uprights *b c*, supporting the wooden rollers *d e*. The goods, which are wound on the roller *e*, are drawn through the dye-bath in the direction shown by the arrow, when *d* is set in motion, and are then wound up on the roller *f*, which is mounted in a slotted bearing. The roller *e* is fitted with a loaded brake in order to keep the goods at the proper tension. If the goods have to be passed through the bath for several hours in succession, they are wound on *d* at first instead of on *f*. On motion being imparted to the roller *e* and the brake applied to *d*, the goods traverse the bath in the opposite direction, and are wound up on *e*. The jigger is the best machine for dyeing piece cottons with substantive dyes or basic dyes.

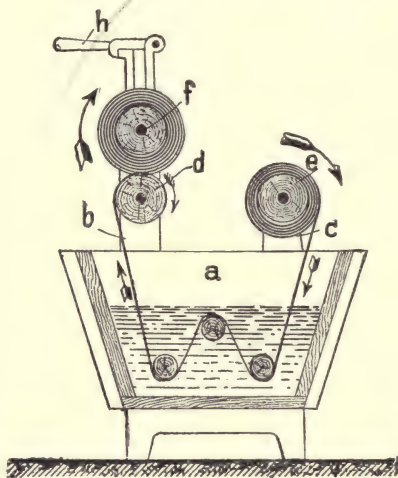


FIG. 34.

Before setting the dye-bath the water must be corrected or purified by boiling with soap or bran. The whole or a portion of the dye is then added. The usual method of dissolving the dye is to mix it into paste with a little hot or cold water and then suffuse it with a larger quantity of hot water, pass it through a linen filter, and run it into the vat; the undissolved residue is brought into solution by a further addition of water. As a rule, it is not advisable to place the solid dye-stuff in the vat. Distilled or condensed water should be used for dissolving dyes; in the case of basic dyes, a little acid facilitates solution, whilst soda is often

useful as an adjunct in dissolving acid dyes. Dyes in paste form must be carefully stirred up with water.

After dyeing, the goods are generally rinsed, to remove adherent impurities and dissolved dye. Loose materials are rinsed in rinsing machines; yarns in the hank are usually hand-washed in the dye-vat, the dye liquor being drawn off and replaced by fresh water. There are also yarn-washing machines, wherein the yarns are suspended from revolving rollers. Washing in running water is the most efficacious. Piece goods are washed on the reel; in the case of fugitive dyes the pieces are passed full width through becks fitted with rollers. Owing to the multifarious character of the operation, it is impossible to go further into details.

The dyed goods are drained in the hydro-extractor. Drying is effected, in the case of loose material, in special forms of apparatus, frequently by the aid of hot air in carbonising machines. Yarns and piece goods are dried by hanging in warm chambers; piece goods more frequently in revolving cylinders, stretching frames, and calendering machines, similar to those used in the finishing process.

The Selection of Dye-Stuffs for Dyeing.

The kind of dye-stuffs to use for producing a particular colour depends both on the nature of the fibre and on the form in which it is to be dyed, and finally also on the requirements exacted of the colour itself.

Cheap dyes will be chosen for cheap goods, and dyes fast to light for goods that will have to be exposed to the light a good deal. In dyeing loose wool the prime consideration is fastness to milling on the part of the dye, whilst in dyeing yarn and piece goods the equalising properties must chiefly be borne in mind. In short, the dyer must not only be in a position to produce a given shade of colour in dyeing, but he must also have an accurate knowledge of the behaviour of the various dye-stuffs and their combinations towards the influence of light and the various other agencies (*see Tests for Fastness*) that may have to be encountered.

Silk-Dyeing.

Silk is dyed in the hank form almost exclusively, very rarely loose. Hand in hand with this operation goes that of loading, which is almost the more important of the two.

It is only in exceptional instances that special requirements in respect of fastness are exacted of silk-dyeings. The dyes most suitable for the purposes of the silk-dyer are those enabling him to

produce all imaginable shades of colour in a rapid and easy manner, with perfect equalisation, the chief qualities being good capacity for equalisation and combination. In comparison with wool and cotton, the number of dyes employed is remarkably small, and these mostly belong to the group of acid dyes, the following being most in use:—

Greens: acid green, malachite green.

Yellows: quinoline yellow, citronine, azoflavine S; naphthol yellow and picric acid are often employed for shading in the brightening bath.

Orange: orange II, 2R, etc.

Brown: acid brown.

Reds: Several ponceaus, roccelline, azocarmine, rhodamine, phloxine, primrose, Magdala-red.

Violets: acid violet, methyl violet, violamine.

Blues: alkali blue, marine blue, methyl blue, induline.

Of these the most suitable for combination are citronine, orange II, roccelline, rhodamine, phloxine, methyl violet, methyl blue, and marine blue.

Colours fast to water are obtained from citronine, roccelline, and marine blue, by solidification after dyeing.

For colours to stand soap, the dyes most frequently used are a few alizarine reds (powder), alizarine orange, cœruleine, and galleine.

Black, the most important dye for silk, is obtained with log-wood only.

Wool-Dyeing.

Wool is dyed in the loose state, as sliver, yarn, and in the piece after weaving; sometimes also in two stages of manufacture, *e.g.* by vatting in the loose state and topping in the piece.

Of all fibres wool is the hardest to damp, and is therefore best dyed at boiling-heat. Consequently, dyeing in the vat, an operation performed at medium temperatures, affords a very sharp test as to the capacity of any sample of wool for absorbing dyes.

The chief dyeings for wool are blue, red, and black. A very large number of dyes, singly and in combination, are used, the most popular and suitable of which will now be described, without any claim being made to absolute completeness.

Green.—A number of bright shades, bearing the name "billiard green," are produced on woollen cloth. Formerly these were obtained from fustic, indigocarmine, and alum (in a single bath), but nowadays acid green is used exclusively, either alone or shaded with some yellow dye, such as naphthol yellow, quinoline yellow, fast yellow, or tartrazine, or by combinations of patent blue or indigocarmine

with one of the above yellow dyes. A particularly pure green is furnished by patent blue N and quinoline yellow.

A brilliant green, fast to milling, is produced on yarn, by the use of milling yellow O (C.) and patent blue A (M.L.Br.); on loose wool with anthracene blue WG extra (B.A.S.F.) and alizarine yellow GGW (M.L.Br.). Unfortunately, however, the last-named excellent dye will not entirely resist the influence of carbonising.

A series of dull olive green tones are produced by combinations of red, blue, and yellow, *e.g.* with chromotrope, azo acid yellow, and patent blue; or with ponceaus, a yellow, and acid green; or, finally, with fustic and logwood.

A very dark, almost black, fast green is obtained by dyeing the loose wool with fustic and alum, and then vatting.

Yellow.—Bright shades of yellow are obtained with quinoline yellow, naphthol yellow, tartrazine, fast yellow, etc.; all these dyeings, however, are incapable of withstanding washing, and, except the two last named, are fugitive to light. They are employed for equalising (trimmings for uniforms) and for many yarns. Faster dyeings are obtained by means of milling yellow O (C.) and with quercitron, or flavine, on zinc-alumina mordants. The two latter dyes reduce the milling fastness of the wool. A beautiful yellow that will completely withstand carbonising can be produced by dyeing with alizarine yellow GGW (M.L.Br.) and potassium bichromate in a single bath.

Anthracene yellow C (C.) gives a very clear yellow, of greenish tinge, furnished by dyeing in an acid bath and then treating with chromium fluoride, the dye being less fast to milling when applied to previously mordanted wool.

Dull greenish yellow colours are produced on loose wool by galloflavine, or cœruleine and fustic, on chrome mordant; on yarns and piece goods by an orange and an acid green.

Orange is produced with one of the orange acid dyes, or with a ponceau and one of the yellow dyes already mentioned. For fast dyeings, cochineal and flavine are used on tin mordant; if duller shades are desired, flavine is replaced by quercitron, and a tin-alumina mordant is used.

Reds.—The chief shades of this important colour are scarlet and madder red (a duller brownish red). For fast scarlets use is made of cochineal on tin mordant; for fugitive kinds, the various ponceaus. Madder shades are also produced with ponceaus; faster kinds, with cloth red or alizarine.

It should be mentioned that considerable divergence exists in the fastness of the various ponceaus, a circumstance still insufficiently known and appreciated in practice. Some of these dyes are

just as fast to light as cochineal; but without exception their fastness to milling is not good, since all of them bleed into the white during that process, though even in this particular differences exist. All of them have a greater capacity for penetrating the fibre than cochineal—the palatine scarlets in particular.

The fastest to light of all the ponceaus are the palatine scarlets (B.A.S.F.), the Victoria scarlets (M.L.Br.), brilliant ponceaus, 4RS, 3R, 4R (C.), a few marks of brilliant croceine (C.), croceine scarlet R (By.), croceine 3B, RX (By.), etc. The palatine scarlets are identical with dyes sold under other names; palatine scarlet A, for example, being the same as Bayer's cochineal scarlet PS and Cassella's brilliant cochineal. Those furnishing the more bluish shades are ponceau B extra (M.L.Br.), scarlet B (By.), new red 5R (By.), a few B marks of brilliant croceine (C.), etc.; ponceau B extra, and scarlet B being the best as regards milling fastness. These two can be used for goods that are to be milled, but must then be dyed by the aid of tin chloride and potassium bitartrate; and the milling must be conducted with care. Colours that will stand sulphur are furnished by, *e.g.*, ponceaus 2R, 3R, (M.L.Br.) and the cheap double ponceau 4R (By.).

The best means of producing, on loose wool or yarns, colours that will not bleed into the white when milled, is by the employment of a red substantive dye. The most suitable for this purpose is the excellent dye, delta purpurine (dyed with common salt and potash); also brilliant Congo R, fast diamine red, anthracene red, Hessian purple N, etc. Many of the substantive dyes, like delta purpurine, brilliant Congo R, fast diamine red, etc. are also fast to sulphur, an essential condition for goods that are to be sulphur-bleached.

The fastest red on wool is produced by means of alizarine (powder) on a mordant of alumina, chrome, and tin. For a madder red these mordants are used in the following proportions:—

Alum	12 per cent.
Tin salt	1½ "
Potassium bichromate	1 "
Potassium bitartrate	4 "
Oxalic acid	4 " (with water of about 20° of hardness).

A colour of the same appearance can, it is true, be obtained with alumina and alizarine alone, but is not thoroughly fast to milling.

Of course this by no means exhausts the list of red dyes applied in practice to wool, other shades (crimsons) resembling fuchsine, of a fugitive character, being produced on piece goods with fuchsine,

fast ones with fast acid violet A2R (M.L.Br.), or cheaper ones with azo acid fuchsine and similar dyes.

Rose Red is applied only to woollen yarns and piece goods, the dyes used being cochineal, with tin mordant, rhodamine—and also other eosines, when the shade requires,—chromotrope, etc. Diamine rose (C.) is also suitable for this purpose.

Bordeaux is produced, as a dark shade, fast to milling, on loose wool and on yarn by means of alizarine and chrome mordant. This colour bleeds slightly, but can be improved in this respect by adding copper sulphate to the mordanting bath. In piece dyeing this colour is mostly obtained with aniline dyes, various fast reds—among which special mention is deserved by the extremely powerful fast red O (M.L.Br.),—also with Victoria rubine and others, the shade being darkened, if necessary, with a blue dye, like cyanine or patent blue, or yellowed with an orange or an acid yellow. These red dyes are handsome and sufficiently fast to light, but do not equalise well. For this reason many dyers prefer to dye with a ponceau or chromotrope, and darken with a blue.

A bright Bordeaux, very fast to light, can be obtained by the aid of fast acid violet A2R (M.L.Br.), chromotrope 2R, orange C, and a blue.

A Bordeaux that is faster than can be obtained from aniline dyes, and of a shade not obtainable with alizarine dyes, is furnished by mordanting with alum, tin salt, and potassium bitartrate, dyeing with cochineal and madder, and darkening with archil according to requirements.

Blue.—This is perhaps the most important of wool colours, and is produced in a variety of ways.

For medium and dark blues, indigo is the first dye to be considered, because it furnishes the fastest dyeings, or the so-called “fast blues.” The wool is dyed in the vat both as loose wool, yarn, and in the piece, though, owing to the difficulty of obtaining proper equalisation by this last means, it is a general custom to blue wool in its loose state. “Semi-fast blue” is produced in two ways, the vat-blued pieces being either boiled with santal, or first mordanted with alum, copper sulphate, and bitartrate, and then dyed with logwood, as already described. The blue obtained with the aid of sandars is much faster than that topped with logwood. Vat blue is also frequently topped with methyl violet or an aniline blue, to improve its brightness, or bottomed with azofuchsine (By.) to save indigo.

Many medium and dark blues, for the most part on yarns and piece goods, are produced with blue alizarine dyes and chrome mordants; of these, special mention may be made of anthracene blue WG extra (B.A.S.F.), on account of its beauty and cheapness.

"Wood blue," which is bright and fast to washing, though fugitive to light, is still largely produced on piece goods.

Similar dyeings, of satisfactory fastness, are also extensively obtained with sulphone cyanine (By.)—which is characterised by great fastness in wear and its resemblance to indigo blue—and naphthol blue (C.). So much, however, cannot be said of the various fast (induline) blues also in use, since most of them equalise badly, and, though fast to acid, are fugitive in the light. The recently introduced naphthazine blue (M.L.Br. and Dahl) is not very fast to light, but has the great advantage of not being affected by impurities in the goods.

A number of blue dyeings, known under the names "navy blue," "Tegethoff blue," etc., are most easily produced with acid violet and acid green, or faster with logwood, acid violet, iron and copper mordants, and oxalic acid, in a single bath. Indulines are also used in combination with logwood, by mordanting as for wood blue, and then dyeing.

The so-called "potash blue," formerly produced with logwood and ferrocyanide, is now most frequently dyed with patent blue, acid violet, and a small quantity of orange.

Bright light blue dyeings are produced—generally on yarns—with alkali blue, or the somewhat faster (to milling) alkali violet, whilst perfectly milling-fast blue is obtained by combining alkali violet and milling yellow O (C.). Lighter tones are preferably produced with Victoria blue, or, if required somewhat greener, with patent blue, etc.

A number of dull pale blue to grey shades, known as "pearl," etc., are dyed with patent blue and an easily equalising acid violet, and, if necessary, shaded with yellow; in the case of alizarine blue, anthracene brown, cœruleine, etc., are used for shading, the same dyes being used for shading after alizarine cyanines and chromium fluoride in a single bath; also by blueing in the hyposulphide vat, and topping with alizarine cyanines and chromium fluoride, with archil and indigo-carmin, etc.

In these dyeings the imperfect fastness to light of alizarine blue is only apparent in the lighter shades; this dye can, however, be replaced with advantage by patent blue, or the fairly light- and milling-fast fast acid blue R (M.L.Br.), notwithstanding its low equalising properties. To ensure fastness, however, the aid of the hyposulphite vat is essential.

On loose wool a fast grey, of a shade unobtainable with alizarine dyes, is produced by blueing in the vat, topping with fustic and sumach, and darkening with iron.

Violet is met with either as very vivid violet or as purple. Bright, but fugitive, dyeings of this class are produced with methyl violet or acid violet; darker, duller, and faster shades with galleine, and the fastest of all with alizarine and alizarine blue on chrome mordant.

So-called purples are most frequently produced, on piece goods, by topping vat blue with chromotrope or a ponceau, or with cochineal and alumina-tin mordant. These dyeings are also frequently produced on yarns and piece goods with an acid violet or a good equalising red and blue dye.

Drab.—This colour is obtained solely by the combination of red, blue, and yellow, a distinction being drawn between aniline drab, alizarine drab, and dye-wood drab, according to the class of dye used.

Though deficient in fastness, the aniline drabs exhibit special advantages for piece dyeing, and play a great part in that branch. Their chief superiority consists in the ease with which the desired shade can be obtained, and in the possibility of dyeing in a perfectly uniform manner goods that are impure or contain different wools, more satisfactorily than with alizarine or wood dyes. Only such dyes as equalise well are used for this purpose, most frequently the following:—Chromotrope, 2R (M.L.Br.), azofuchsine (By.), azocarmine (B.A.S.F.), archil substitute N (C.), fast acid violet 10B (By.), azo yellow and allied yellows, various acid orange marks, fast yellow, tartrazine, quinoline yellow, various patent blues and cyanines, cyanol (C.), fast green, bluish (By.), wool green S (B.A.S.F.), etc.

The following general remarks apply to these dyes:—The fastest to light are the reds, the yellows coming next, whilst the blues are far inferior in this respect. Chief among the reds, in point of fastness to light, are chromotrope and azofuchsine, the best in equalising power being azocarmine and (the fugitive) fast acid violet 10B. Of the yellows, the fastest to light are fast yellow and tartrazine; of the blues, cyanine, a few patent blue marks (A.V.N.), and cyanol. Tartrazine is the poorest equaliser, but is very productive and gives handsome colours, fast to light and water. Azofuchsine does not equalise well except at boiling-heat.

Aniline drabs are liable to change their colour, more especially when the yellowing has been effected with an orange dye. The combination of chromotrope, cyanine or cyanol, and a yellow like azo yellow, least exhibits this tendency, and is also advantageous in other respects. Another peculiarity exhibited by light drabs is the phenomenon of "insolation," whereby the yellow entirely disappears on exposure to strong light, and thus alters the shade completely. In the dark the original colour reappears. This

peculiarity is probably due to the fact that the goods become drier in the light, and is especially noticeable in the case of fast yellow and metaniline yellow.

The dye-woods (logwood, fustic, and redwood) are mainly employed for pale drabs dyed in the wool by the single-bath darkening method. In this case, aniline drab is too fugitive to be used, and alizarine drab is less easy to dye. For dark shades, wood drab is previously mordanted with chrome; but this is seldom practised, since the dye makes the fibre hard. Finally, alizarine drab is most frequently employed for fast drab in piece dyeing, and for dark drab shades dyed in the wool. It is produced by mordanting with chrome and dyeing with anthracene brown, shaded afterwards with other alizarine dyes, galloflavine, fustic, etc.

For fast drabs, easy of production, more attention should be bestowed on chromogene (M.L.Br.); it is dyed in an acid bath, and afterwards treated with potassium bichromate. A drab that can be equally recommended, especially for yarns, can be produced, more simply and faster than with the above dyes, by the sulphone dyes (By.).

Finally, brilliant alizarine cyanine 3G can be recommended for drabs and mode colours. It is applied in an acid bath, and gives much faster dyeings than those with blue dyes.

Brown.—The chief part in this class of colours is played by anthracene brown, though in piece dyeing the production of wood brown, finished by darkening, is still largely practised. For the reasons named in connection with drab dyeings, the last-named dye is unsuitable for loose wool; it is, however, still used, though santal must be replaced by alizarine orange (eventually by alizarine red or cloth red). The same aniline dyes that are used for drab also find employment for brown-dyeing piece goods.

Black.—For the production of this important colour, the following shades and dyes come under consideration:—Iron black, chrome black, single-bath logwood black, diamond black (By.), alizarine black (B.A.S.F.), also the acid blacks, naphthol black or brilliant black (C. and B.A.S.F.), naphthylamine black (C.), naphthyl blue-black (C.), anthracene acid black (C.), Victoria black (By.), wool black (Act. and By.), Biebrich patent black (Kalle), sulphone black (By.), chromotrope black (M.L.Br.), azo acid black (M.L.Br.), etc., alizarine cyanine black G, and alizarine blue-black B (By.) are too dear for black, though suitable for green.

Logwood black, that at one time was almost the only black, has now been largely displaced by the artificial dye-stuffs. The black acid dyes, most of them fast to light, such as naphthol black, naphthylamine black, etc., owing to their simplicity of application,

and to the fact that the dyeing is not followed by careful washing, are largely used, especially for dyeing pieces containing fancy cotton threads that are intended to remain white after dyeing. However, with the exception of anthracene acid black, they are not sufficiently fast to milling, and many of them are used solely on account of their low price, cost being the deciding factor. The acid dyeings with anthracene acid black will stand careful milling without bleeding into the white. The blacks fixed with chrome mordants—alizarine black and diamond black—are fast to milling; moreover the first of them is the fastest towards acids of all the black dyes, though, on the other hand, its fastness to light is incomplete. Conversely, diamond black is particularly fast to light.

The logwood blacks differ considerably as regards their fastness to light, according to the method of production employed; chrome black is fast to acids, but not to light, though in this respect it is improved by the addition of copper sulphate; iron black is specially fast to light, but very sensitive to acids. As a rule, the logwood blacks have a great tendency to rub off. Iron black still remains the best black for wool, on account of its excellent equalising powers, covering power, and fastness to light. In some instances it is impossible to dye dirty and napped fabrics black except with logwood; and few of the above-mentioned dyes can equal it in fulness and beauty of colour. In the case of very dense shades, however, logwood gives a rather brownish black, and better results are furnished by naphthylamine black 4B.

For loose wool and yarns, use is generally made of alizarine black, diamond black, and chrome black, since iron black makes the fibre hard. On the other hand, acid dyeing blacks and iron black are chiefly used in piece dyeing.

Cotton-Dyeing.

Cotton is dyed in the loose condition, as yarn, warps, cops, and in the piece. In the case of this fibre it is a still more difficult task than with wool to give all the various dye-stuffs and combinations used, chiefly on account of the very large number of direct dyes now so extensively employed for cotton. Consequently the subject can only be treated in an indicative manner.

In the first place, it should be mentioned that nearly every dyeing on cotton can be performed in three ways—with tannin dyes, with direct dyes, and with mordant dyes.

Green.—This class of colours is produced with a basic green dye (brilliant green, malachite green, etc.), either alone or shaded with chrysoidine—or handsomer and faster with auramine,—or

with some blue, such as methylene blue, Nile blue, etc., and auramine. Of the direct dyes, the following can be combined to form bright but fugitive greens:—Thiazol yellow (By.), or thioflavine (C.), with diamine pure blue (C.), or benzo pure blue (By.). For medium shades diamine green (C.) has made its way into favour; the dyeings must, however, be brightened by topping with a basic green dye, the colours produced by diamine green alone being too dull. A fast bright green is furnished by quercitron and a basic green dye, mainly on piece goods. Different fast olive green shades can be obtained, chiefly on loose cotton, by the use of logwood and fustic or quercitron, with or without catechu and basic dyes.

Yellow.—Pure fast yellows are produced on cotton with quercitron and alumina mordants, on piece goods, but chiefly with chrome yellow in the case of yarns. Less fast, though still fairly so, are the colours produced with various yellow direct dyes, such as chrysamine (which is cheap, but not fast towards alkalis), chloramine yellow (By.), fast diamine yellow (C.), chrysophenine (By. Act.), diamine golden yellow (C.), Mikado yellow (Leonhardt), etc. Fugitive greenish yellow tones are furnished by thioflavine, thiazol yellow, etc.; faster shades with auramine. Brownish yellow shades, known as chamois, nankeen, etc., were formerly produced with fugitive basic dyes—chrysoidine, phosphine—but nowadays better with chrysamine and similar direct dyes. Iron chamois is the only one that is really fast.

Orange.—A perfectly fast orange is produced, chiefly on yarns, with orange chrome, and with alizarine orange on piece goods. Of the substantive orange dyes, Mikado orange and toluylene orange may be mentioned on account of their fastness.

Red.—The fastest red on cotton is the Turkey-red produced by the old process, the so-called “old red.” The new red, chiefly produced on yarns and pieces, is also very fast, though not equal to the old red. In addition to the competitors of Turkey-red already given, the following may also be mentioned—fast diamine red (which is fast enough for many purposes), primuline red, which is fast to washing and is largely used in dyeing yarns, and the red produced with fuchsine or safranine, with or without auramine.

Rose-Red.—The handsomest of these colours on cotton is that furnished by rhodamine and a fatty acid salt of alumina; the fastest by alizarine. When alizarine cannot be used, it may be replaced by erica (Act.), brilliant geranine (By.), diamine rose (C.), etc., all of which yield colours that will stand washing.

Bordeaux.—A fast Bordeaux is produced by combining alizarine

with methyl violet or rubine, or with alizarine, logwood, quercitron, and alumina-iron mordant, on piece goods.

Colours of inferior fastness can be obtained both with direct dyes, *e.g.* primuline red and diamine black, as well as with tannin dyes, the best way, in the latter case, being by the combination of safranine with methylene blue and auramine.

Blue.—Vat blue is the fastest and most esteemed blue for cotton, though the other dye-stuffs already mentioned as rivals of indigo (*q.v.*) are largely used. Fast, handsome, and pure blues can be produced with basic dyes, such as methylene blue. Finally, mention may also be made of Berlin-blue, which is a fast dye and one still used.

Violet.—A perfectly fast colour is obtainable with alizarine on iron mordant, or with gallocyanine on chrome mordant. By itself the alizarine iron violet is too dull, and must be enlivened by topping with methyl violet. These colours are almost entirely confined to calico-printing and to dyeing in the piece. A brighter, and fairly fast imitation of alizarine violet is obtained by combining safranine with methylene blue, methylene violet, and similar dyes. Very bright and handsome, though fugitive, violet shades are furnished by the various methyl violet marks. Of the direct violet dyes the most important are benzo violet R (By.) and diamine violet (C.).

Brown.—The most usual method of producing fast browns and drabs, chiefly on loose cottons and yarns, is with catechu, either alone or in conjunction with other dyes. These are often topped with Bismarck brown, to make them brighter. Fast browns on piece goods are also produced with manganese bistre and by combinations of alizarine, quercitron, and logwood. Finally, also, various direct brown dyes, chiefly diamine brown M, diamine bronze, toluylene brown, new toluylene brown, benzo chrome brown, and benzo brown, are employed, either alone or mixed, and either after-chromed or not.

Grey is still most frequently produced by alternate immersion of the cotton in logwood and iron baths. These dyeings make the fibre hard, and have therefore been largely superseded by various marks of diamine black and similar direct dyes.

Black.—This important colour is now mostly produced with aniline black, and to a lesser degree with logwood. Various direct dyes are also used in the black dyeing of loose cotton and yarns, *e.g.* the different marks of diamine black (C.), direct deep black (By.), direct blue-black (By.), and Columbia black. Less esteemed are the blacks diazotised and developed on the fibre; various marks of diamine black (C.), diaminogene (C.), diazo black (By.), diazo

brilliant black (By.), Zambesi black (Act.). Of greater importance are the after-chromed blacks, various marks of diamond deep black (C.), benzo chrome black (By.), and Columbia chrome black (Act.) (a mixed black), which are fast to rubbing and crabbing (*see* Finishing), and are used to replace aniline black in dyeing half-woollen goods, the cotton yarn being dyed black, spun with white wool, and the wool topped in an acid bath after crabbing.

Vidal black and fast black (B.A.S.F.) are also used for cotton.

In point of fastness, beauty, and fulness of colour, aniline black is the best black for cotton. Logwood black is really only fast when produced by the aid of copper. Most of the substantive black dyes will stand washing, but their fastness to light leaves a good deal to be desired, and they have not the same beautiful full appearance as the aniline blacks.

Ramie, Linen, and Hemp are dyed in the same way as cotton; Jute is dyed with basic and acid dyes in a weak acid bath, either containing alum (2–5 per cent.), or oxalic acid (1–2 per cent.). The material is entered at 40° C., heated to boiling, and boiled for a half to three-quarters of an hour.

Dyeing Mixed Fabrics.

The term “mixed fabrics” implies fabrics composed of two or more different classes of fibres. Formerly these fabrics were dyed, in part or altogether, in the form of yarn, but nowadays they are dyed in the piece, by one of two methods, either to one colour, the different fibres being caused to absorb dyes of the same shade, or else “shot” effects are produced by dyeing the different fibres to widely different colours, the result being the more handsome in proportion as the two colours are complementary one of the other.

The suitability of different dye-stuffs for dyeing mixed fabrics can be readily ascertained by dyeing small samples. In this connection it must be borne in mind that not only the nature of the different fibres present, but also their relative proportions in the mixture, is of importance.

Dyeing Half-Woolen Goods (Wool and Cotton).—It is even now the practice occasionally to dye the cotton, in the yarn, with acid-resisting dyes, then weave it along with white woollen yarn, and dye the wool with acid dyes in the piece. For the most part, however, these goods are piece dyed, there being two methods of effecting this object; the older plan is to dye the wool in the fabric with acid dyes, which, of course, leave the cotton untouched, the latter being afterwards dyed on the jigger by the aid of tannin,

fixed with tartar emetic (and iron, if necessary) and followed by treating with a basic dye. In order to preserve the wool as much as possible from alteration, the latter process is carried out in the cold. The final bath may also be lukewarm, but as the wool always absorbs a little of the dye, the shade produced in the first dyeing should be rather lighter than that really required. In the case of two-colour effects the last dye bath must be cold.

This method therefore entails the use of four baths; and the production of blacks is even more complicated, the cotton having first to be mordanted with iron by treating it with sumach, fixing with iron, and treating with chalk; the wool mordanted next by heating in a bath of potassium bichromate, free from acid (to prevent the iron being extracted from the cotton); and, finally, the whole is dyed with logwood.

In the second method the half-woollen material is dyed with direct dyes in a bath containing 2 per cent., by weight, of Glauber salt. This process has the great advantage of simplicity, inasmuch as a black can be dyed in a single bath, *e.g.* with half-wool black (C.), the only difficulty being in dyeing to pattern.

The behaviour of the direct dyes towards wool and cotton is somewhat divergent, some of them enabling the two fibres to be dyed to an equal depth, whilst others dye the cotton only, and are therefore suitable for use in producing two-colour effects. As a rule, the following conditions obtain: in a boiling-hot bath the wool will take up the more dye and come out deeper in colour than the cotton, the converse being the case when a low temperature is used. The addition of a small quantity of an alkali salt, like soda, reduces the absorption of the dye by wool; and, conversely, the wool is dyed more strongly than the cotton when an acid bath is employed.

The *modus operandi* is thus practically revealed. The goods are entered in the bath, which is then raised to boiling in about a half to three-quarters of an hour, and is kept on the boil until the colour of the wool is only a little lighter than it should be when finished. Steam is then turned off and dyeing continued in the cooling bath until the colour of the cotton appears deep enough. The after-darkening of the wool, which is nearly always necessary, is effected with acid dyes, whilst for the cotton, direct dyes are used, these drawing better on this fibre than on wool; or the dye may be caused to draw more to the cotton or the wool, as is found necessary, by making the bath liquor alkaline or acid.

Dyeing Half-Silk Goods (Silk and Cotton).—There are two chief methods to be considered in dyeing half-silks—(1) the silk is dyed first, with an acid dye, to a shade rather

lighter than actually required, next the cotton is treated with tannin, passed through a bath of tartar emetic, and cold-dyed as quickly as possible with basic dye in a fairly concentrated bath; (2) in this case a first dyeing is given with a direct dye, after which the silk, which is generally too light, is darkened by entering in a bath of basic or acid dye.

This second method has now attained a high degree of practical importance, and will therefore be described in detail.

A study of the behaviour of the various direct dyes towards silk reveals considerable divergences, which, nevertheless, can be classified according to certain laws. In the first place, some of these dyes have the property of dyeing silk and cotton in different tones, and these dyes are the least suitable of any for the purpose now in view. Their affinity towards the two fibres in question depends, in the first place, on their nature, and, secondly, on the constitution of the dye-bath—a greater affinity for cotton being exhibited in a neutral bath containing common salt, or in a weak alkaline bath, whereas in a weak acid bath the dye draws better on the silk. Some of the direct dyes—the reds, for instance—dye cotton and silk almost equally in an alkaline bath, which is charged with 5 per cent. of sodium phosphate, 5 per cent. of soap, and the necessary quantity of dye, the goods being entered lukewarm, then slowly raised to a temperature a little below boiling—not quite on the boil, or the silk would suffer—and, after turning off the steam, continuing to treat in the cooling bath for another half-hour or so.

Many other direct dyes, especially such as dye cotton best in presence of common salt, can be advantageously employed to dye half-silks with common salt and acetic acid, provided the foregoing precautions be borne in mind.

The silk, which is generally rather too light in colour, can be brought up to the proper shade by entering the goods in a fresh bath containing basic dyes and a little acetic acid, at 30–40° C., or with acid dyes at a somewhat higher temperature, and with more acetic acid.

For “shot” effects the goods are dyed either by the first-named method, or else first with a dye that attaches itself to the cotton alone, leaving the silk undyed, the latter being afterwards dyed in a fresh bath containing acid dyes.

Dyeing Gloria (Wool and Silk) Fabrics.—This method of piece dyeing is of recent date, and is one of the most difficult tasks the dyer is called on to perform, since it entails an accurate knowledge of the behaviour of the dyes towards wool and silk.

Here also, as in the case of half-silks, it may happen that the dye produces a different shade on the wool to that imparted to the silk, *e.g.* azo acid fuchsine, fast acid red A (M.L.Br.), etc., which are therefore unsuitable for the purpose in view.

The acid dyes are those most in use for this purpose, and these, as a rule, dye the wool more strongly than the silk when applied at boiling-heat, the converse being the case at low and medium temperatures.

The following dyes act equally on wool and silk at boiling-heat:—Fast green, bluish mark (By.), patent blue, alkali blue, alkali violet, navy blue B (B.A.S.F.), acid violet 6 BN (By.), fast acid violet A2R and 10B (M.L.Br. and By.), Bengal-rose (dyed with acetic acid), anthracite black (C.), naphthylamine black D (C.), etc. The following have a rather stronger affinity for wool: light green S, wool green (B.A.S.F.); the acid orange dyes, like orange II; a few ponceaus, like palatine scarlet (B.A.S.F.), brilliant croceine (C.), etc.

On the basis of their affinity for silk and wool, the acid dyes may be divided into three groups, those given above as having an almost identical affinity for both fibres being taken as the first group. To a second group belong such dyes as chiefly dye wool when applied at boiling-heat, *e.g.* acid green, extra conc. (C.), tartrazine, orange G, a few ponceaus, as mark 2R (M.L.Br.), S. pat. (C.), indigocarmine cyanine (M.L.Br.), etc. Finally, the third group comprises the dyes having more affinity for silk than for wool at medium and low temperatures—azocarmine (B.A.S.F.), acid violet N (M.L.Br.), fast acid blue B (By.), water blue, etc.; as also the majority of the basic dyes, such as methyl green, auramine, rhodamine, etc.

The best means of dyeing wool and silk to equal shades is by using the dyes of Group I., unless prevented by other reasons such as their equalising properties, suitability for combination, etc. The *modus operandi* is as follows:—The bath is set with about 10 per cent. of "tartar preparation," bisulphate, and one-half the necessary quantity of dye, the goods being then entered and the bath raised to boiling-heat as quickly as the equalising properties of the dye permit, boiling being continued until the wool appears sufficiently shaded. The silk will, as a rule, be less deep in colour; consequently, after cooling the bath down to 45–50° C., the rest of the dye is added, and the operation continued in the cooling bath until the silk has been properly dyed. If, however, this result fails to ensue, recourse must be had to a suitable dye of the third group. In this manner a light yellow may be obtained with azoflavine, which, however, turns dirty in dark shades; a dark yellow and

orange, with orange II; red, with azocarmine, magdala red, or a ponceau; pale blue, with patent blue; dark blue, with acid violet 6BN and bluish fast green; black, with anthracite black, deepened with orange and a basic green at low temperature. For mode colours, use is preferably made of azocarmine, patent blue; and azoflavine.

To produce "shot" effects, the following procedure is adopted:—The wool is dyed first with a dye of the second group, at boiling-heat; the small amount of dye that has become fixed on the fibre of the silk is then removed by boiling with water, soap, or ammonium acetate, and the silk afterwards dyed in a third bath containing a dye of the third group, the bath being concentrated and cold, or, at most, lukewarm. Red, for instance, is produced on the wool by the aid of ponceau 2R, and the silk dyed green with methyl green and auramine; or the wool dyed green with acid green extra conc., the silk red with rhodamine, etc.

The most beautiful effects can be produced in this way, but the following points must be borne in mind:—(1) The dyeings on the two fibres must be as nearly equal in intensity as possible, and complementary; (2) the silk must be thoroughly freed from colour after the first dyeing; (3) the dyes employed in the third bath must have a low affinity for wool. These conditions, however, are rather difficult to carry out in practice, and, moreover, the three baths render the operation very troublesome; consequently, the general procedure is to first dye the wool with dyes of the second group, then cool the bath as much as possible, and dye the silk with dyes of the third class.

V. SAMPLE DYEINGS; COLORIMETRIC DETERMINATIONS; REACTIONS OF DYE-STUFFS ON THE FIBRE; TESTS FOR FASTNESS.

Sample Dyeings and Colorimetric Determinations.

The determination of the value of dyes is made by sample dyeings or by means of the colorimeter, though in either case all that can be done is to effect a comparison between two or more samples of one and the same dye, or two or more very similar dyes. In both cases it must be borne in mind that minute differences in the intensity of two dyeings can only be detected in light shades. The greatest difficulty is encountered in examining yellows, and therefore in this case it is advisable to combine the dye in question with another dye of suitable character, *e.g.* a blue.

Sample Dyeing consists in making comparative dyeings with two or more parcels or samples of one and the same dye under

closely identical conditions, and examining the resulting colours for their relative intensity, shade, and purity. With this object a small quantity, say 1 grm., of each sample of dye is carefully weighed out and dissolved in 1 litre of water, each solution being then employed to dye equal weights of yarn in baths of otherwise identical constitution, and all under the same conditions of temperature. The best method of applying heat is to immerse the dye-baths in a heated strong brine. When mordant dyes are in question, the various samples of yarn must be mordanted beforehand in one and the same bath. Already during the process of dyeing it will be easily seen whether any considerable differences exist between the various samples, and should this be the case the weaker bath must be strengthened by adding sufficient of the dye solution to bring the dyeings into a condition of equality. It will also become apparent during the dyeing whether the dyes are homogeneous or mixtures, since the different dyes never draw on to the fibre so uniformly and simultaneously as to render the detection of a mixture impossible.

After dyeing, the samples are washed, dried, and the resulting difference determined with reference to the amount of dye consumed. At the same time it will have to be ascertained whether, through unequal

heating, the one bath has become more highly concentrated than the other. Should this prove to be the case, the test must be repeated, since more dye is taken up from concentrated baths than from those more dilute. If the baths have been imperfectly exhausted, another dyeing with fresh yarn will give an idea of the quantity of dye left behind the first time.

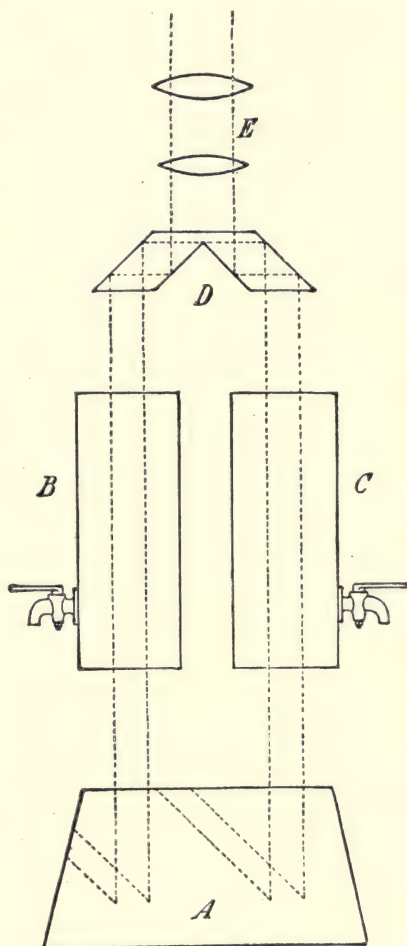


FIG. 35.

A simpler, quicker, and more accurate method is afforded by the colorimeter. Of the various types of this instrument, mention need only be made here to that of C. H. Wolff, the construction of which is based on the fact that light rays suffer a diminution in brightness in passing through a stratum of coloured liquid, the decrease being in proportion to the degree of concentration of the liquid, *i.e.* the greater the quantity of dye in the liquid, the more will the light be dimmed in passing therethrough.

The accompanying sketch (Fig. 35) will facilitate description of the Wolff colorimeter :—

B and *C* are cubed cylinders into which the dye solutions are poured; *A* is a reflector; *D* a pair of prisms, which so unite the two bundles of light rays in the field of vision of the lens *E* that the one-half of the circular field of vision corresponds to the light transmitted through the one prism, and the other half to the rays traversing the other prism.

The two solutions for comparison, which must be very dilute, are placed in the respective cylinders and examined, the darker one being reduced in volume by drawing it off through the lateral tap until both sides of the field of vision appear of equal intensity of colour.

Now the capacity of absorption for light is inversely proportional to the thickness of the absorbent layer traversed by the rays. Thus, for example, if to produce equal intensity in the two halves of the field it is necessary to reduce the one liquid to half the volume of the other liquid, then the absorptive capacity of the former will be double that of the latter. As, now, the absorptive capacity of a liquid for light depends directly on the degree of concentration, then, by assuming the height of the two columns of liquid in the test cylinders as being represented by *H H'*, whilst the concentration of the liquids is expressed by *C C'*, we obtain the following simple relation :—

$$C : C' = H' : H.$$

The relative colour strength of the solutions under examination can be easily calculated by the aid of this proportion.

In making a determination it is not advisable to confine the examination to a single test, but to make at least two, and repeat these after reversing the two cylinders, the arithmetical mean of the four tests being taken to express the result.

Reactions of Dye-Staffs on the Fibre.

In practice it is frequently desirable to ascertain what dye has been employed to produce a given dyeng, and with this object the sample is cut into strips which are then subjected to the action of

various reagents, such as acids, alkalis, alcohol, etc., in order that some conclusion as to the nature of the dye can be drawn from the colour-changes ensuing therefrom. Owing to the large number of existing dyes this method is by no means easy, and, especially in the case of mixtures, is often only partially possible. For the assistance of the dyer, various tables, setting forth the necessary indications, have been drawn up, *e.g.* by Lehne and Rusterholz (*Lehne's Färberzeitung*, 1890, pp. 186, 226, 260, 318, 388; 1891, pp. 168, 276, 358; 1892, pp. 50, 198, 248, 332; 1893, pp. 216, 254, 350; 1894, p. 22) and by K. Schimke (*Centralblatt f. Textil-industrie*, Berlin, 1892, pp. 6, 65, 108, 140, 198, 228). When, by the aid of these tables, the experimenter believes he has detected the dye used, he then makes a sample dyeing with the said dye-stuff on a similar fibre, and tests the resulting colour with the same reagents as before in order to ascertain the points of resemblance or difference.

Testing the Fastness of Dyes.

Fastness in dyes is a quality of equal importance with cost and colour, and a dye can only be considered as really fast when it proves capable of resisting for a sufficiently long time, without appreciable alteration, the influences to which it will be subjected in practical use.

It is not essential that a dye should be fast in every respect. For example, in the case of clothing, all that is required of a dye is that it will stand the various influences to which it will be exposed in wear; in the case of curtains, fastness to light is a prime essential; whilst the dye on underclothing, worn next the skin, must be able to withstand friction and perspiration.

Tests for fastness, however, never furnish more than relative values, and consequently these tests are best made in comparison between at least two dyes, or their dyeings, simultaneously—a necessary condition being that the dyeings in question shall be of as nearly equal intensity as possible.

Fastness to Light implies the power of a dye to withstand the combined influence of light and air. The chemical reaction that goes on during the fading of a colour has not been minutely examined, all that is known being that, in the absence of air, the influence of light is considerably reduced.

The fastness to light of any given dye depends on several circumstances, *e.g.* on the nature of the fibre, the method of fixing, and the intensity of the dyeing. Thus, dyeings on wool are mostly faster to light than those of the same dyes on other fibres;

whilst, in the case of logwood dyeings, the colour is faster when consisting of an iron or copper lake, the alumina and tin lakes being fugitive; the basic dyes are generally much faster to light when fixed with tannin or tartar emetic than with oleic acid, on cotton. Finally, as regards the intensity of the dyeing on the fastness to light, it is evident that a dark shade containing a larger quantity of dye will be able to stand the influence of light a far longer time than a light dyeing, not to mention that under the latter circumstances a slight change—especially of a qualitative nature—is more readily detected than in dark shades. Thus when, for example, a blue dye has the tendency to become greener in the light, this faculty may pass entirely unobserved in the case of dark shades, whereas in light shades it may result in a complete modification of the colour.

The manner in which a colour suffers alteration is therefore an important point; when it merely becomes paler, without losing its brightness and tint, it is decidedly faster to light than one that suffers a change of tone in the same time.

In exposing dyeings to light, two other peculiarities become apparent: some dyes (*e.g.* indigo) rapidly becoming lighter at first and then remaining for a long time without further change; others again (*e.g.* picric acid, azo yellow, etc.) turn somewhat darker at first.

Two forms of apparatus have been constructed for testing the fastness of dyes to light, that used by Oehler being arranged so that a collecting lens directs the concentrated rays of the sun in a vertical direction on to the material. The other apparatus, that of H. Perger, is illuminated by the electric light. In applying the test it has to be remembered that the intensity of the action exerted by the light depends on several circumstances—the time of year, climate, weather, and, finally, the manner in which the exposure is made; consequently the tests in all cases must be comparative, and made with at least two dyeings at the same time. When the fastness of a dye is known, this can be taken as a standard and used for comparing that of another exposed under the same conditions. The dyed samples are laid out flat on a sheet of strong paper, the one half of the sample being exposed, whilst the other half is covered over by a piece of cardboard, and, being thus protected from light and air, serves for comparison. The samples are then exposed freely (not under glass) to the sunlight in a place where they are protected against dust and also against acid or alkaline fumes. The use of other sources of light, such as the electric light, gives different results, and therefore is not suitable for practical purposes. At the start the illuminated and protected

portions of the sample should be compared daily, and an incipient change in the colour must not lead to the abandonment of the test, it being necessary to further examine the progress of such change. Dyes that will stand exposure for a month in the summer without appreciable alteration may be considered as very fast to light.

Fastness to Water, Washing, and Milling, implies the behaviour of dyes under the action of water or solutions of soap; and the points to ascertain are whether the dye changes in colour or intensity, and if it bleeds into white or undyed fibre with which it is washed. The requirements exacted in this particular vary considerably, carpets, curtains, and upholstery stuffs for instance not being required to stand washing, as a rule; whereas yarns that are to be woven into pattern fabrics and then milled must remain entirely unchanged during that operation and exhibit no sign of bleeding.

In testing a dye for its fastness to water, a sample of yarn dyed with the specimen under examination is plaited along with a piece of white yarn and left immersed in cold water all night. To be quite fast, the dye must not dissolve in the water, and thus colour it, or bleed into the white yarn. In the case of woollen yarns this test is usually performed by boiling the sample in water for a quarter to half an hour.

Fastness to Washing and Soap is tested by plaiting a sample of dyed yarn with white yarn and then treating them for a quarter to half an hour in a solution of soap (about 0.2 per cent.) first at 50–60° C. and then at 100° C.

Fastness to Milling is required of woollen goods only, and is tested by subjecting the plait of white and dyed yarn to a rigorous milling by hand, with an alkaline soap, then washing and leaving to stand overnight in a rather wet condition. For the dye to be really fast, it is necessary that no staining of the white should occur, and also that the dyed sample remains free from alteration. The test will be still more severe if the sample be left for several hours in the soapy solution after milling.

In testing wool-dyeings for **Fastness to Acids**, the sample is carbonised with sulphuric acid and then neutralised. Cotton-dyeings are regarded as fast to acid when they will stand dyeing in an acid bath, as applied to wool, without suffering any appreciable alteration of shade or bleeding into white wool. With this object the dyed cotton is boiled along with white wool in a bath containing 4 per cent. of sulphuric acid and 10 per cent. of Glauber salt (calculated on the weight of the wool) for an hour. This test serves to determine whether a given dye is suitable for use on

cotton that is to be woven along with animal fibre which is afterwards to be dyed in an acid bath in the piece.

Fastness to Perspiration is tested by immersing the sample for an hour, in association with white cotton and wool, in a $2\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ B. solution of acetic acid at 40° C.

Fastness to Bleach (chemicking) is tested only in the case of cotton, the dyed sample being steeped for an hour in a cold 1° B. solution of bleaching powder.

Fastness to Sulphur is a test applied solely to wool. The sample, plaited along with white yarn, is first soaped, squeezed, and then left for twelve hours in an atmosphere of sulphurous acid.

Sometimes, and especially in the case of wool-dyeings, a quick-lime test is imposed, the stuff being padded over with a pulp of slaked lime, left to dry, and examined for alteration after brushing off the lime. This test, as well as sprinkling the stuff with soda solution, followed by drying, is performed when information is desired as to the capacity of the dye for standing the influence of street mud.

Fastness to Ironing and Steaming is tested by subjecting the dyed sample to hot ironing or drying on a surface of heated metal, and by steaming. The dye should either be quite free from alteration or else resume its original shade after a short exposure to the air. In applying these tests it must not be forgotten that the wool itself may assume a yellowish tinge under excessive steaming, the result being an apparent alteration of some colours—blue, for example. For the sake of comparison, it is therefore necessary to steam an undyed sample of the same material at the same time.

CHAPTER V

PRINTING¹

WHEREAS the object in dyeing is to secure uniform and complete coloration of the entire material of the fabric, the purpose of the printer is to apply the colouring matters only in certain parts and in a well-defined pattern; hence, printing may be regarded as local dyeing. Closely allied, however, as these two branches of the subject may be, it follows from the nature of the case that the ways and means whereby their respective objects are secured must be very different. For instance, in dyeing, it is for the most part feasible to modify a dyed colour by the subsequent application of other dyes; but in printing this is not possible, and therefore all the materials employed must be carefully examined before use.

For the application of dye to certain parts of a fabric, and according to a well-defined pattern, recourse must be had to an application unknown in the dyeing process, namely, a printing block or forme, by means of which it becomes feasible to print any dissolved dye upon the fabric. It is, however, evident that although the dissolved dye may be printed as a well-defined pattern on the fabric, the contour of the design would very soon lose its sharpness of outline, owing to the running of the solution; and to prevent such an occurrence a further adjunct, rarely if ever used in dyeing, has to be called in aid, namely, an agglutinant, or thickening material, with which the colour is incorporated before application. Apart from this, the colour has to receive other additions, and also to be subjected to certain after-treatments, which will be dealt with later on.

Besides direct printing, there are other means whereby a coloured pattern can be produced in cloth-printing. Thus, if a fabric be printed over with substances that are impervious to liquids, and is then dyed, it follows that the dye will be fixed only on the unprinted

¹ The author is indebted for much of the information contained in this chapter to the handbooks on Calico-Printing by Lauber and Sansone, and the article on Printing, by Stork and Benade, in Karmarsch-Heerens' Technical Dictionary, to which sources the reader is referred for points of detail, especially as regards the compounding of the printing materials.

parts of the fabric, the printed portions being left white when the goods have been washed. This kind of printing, whereby white figures can be produced on a coloured ground, is known as "reserve printing," and the substances employed to protect the printed portions from the action of the dye are called "reserves."

Again, it is possible to produce white figures on a dyed material by printing it over with substances that destroy or discharge the colour. This is the so-called "discharge printing."

By the assistance of reserve and discharge printing it is possible to produce patterns in two ways: either a mordant is added to the reserve or discharge before printing, and the goods afterwards dyed, whereby the discharged or reserve portions become coloured because of the mordant there situated; or the reserve or discharge is incorporated with a dye, and then printed. Finally, as a third method, the fabric may be printed with a mordant, which is then fixed in a suitable manner, and the goods dyed, whereupon only the mordanted portions will retain the dye, leaving the rest white, the method being thus a combination of printing and dyeing.

Historical.—From the very earliest times the peoples of the Orient have practised the art of cloth-printing; and although the work was performed in a highly primitive manner, the above-mentioned methods of producing coloured patterns would seem to have been known to them.

The most primitive state of transition between dyeing and printing is found among the Chinese, who are known to produce coloured figures on cloth by hand painting.

The true home of the cloth-printing industry, however, seems to be India, printing blocks for the production of coloured designs having been in use there from the most ancient times. Reserve printing must also be classed as an Indian invention; and to this type of product belongs the so-called "Battik" goods that are still produced in Sumatra and Java, the design being drawn on the goods by the aid of a mixture of resin and wax, which are applied in a melted state, and, after solidification, form an impenetrable reserve, so that the parts thus covered remain undyed when the fabric is afterwards dyed (usually by vatting). On subsequently removing the reserve by hot water, there appears a white design on a coloured ground.

This method was first brought into Europe by the French, from their colonies in Eastern Asia, as the so-called "porcelain-printing" (white on blue ground).

The first calico-printing factory on record was established at Richmond-on-Thames in 1676 by a French refugee; later on, works were started at Neuchâtel (1689); in several German towns

—Augsburg, Heidenheim-on-Brenz; at Sainte Suzanne, in France; in Austria (Bürgstein, Schwechat, Friedau, Kettenhof, Kosmanos), etc.

At first hand-presses were employed, the design being deeply engraved on a copper plate, which the printer covered with colour by the aid of a brush, the excess being afterwards removed with a knife. When thus ready for printing, the plate was raised by the mechanism of the press, brought into contact with the material to receive the impression, and then returned to the first position, for re-inking.

This method is cheap, and gives a sharp impression. It is still employed—in Switzerland, for example—generally for broad designs, and chiefly for silk kerchiefs.

At a later period other machines were introduced, the most important being the Perrotine (invented by Perrot of Rouen, in 1834), which can also be used as a multiple-colour machine. The “Hexe” press is still to be found in a few cloth-printing works. At present, however, the cylinder printing press, first introduced by Bell in 1785, is the most widely used of any.

Hand Printing.

The printing plates used must not be too large or too small, the former defect meaning excessive weight and trouble in handling, whilst in the other extreme the work takes too much time.

The material for the plates must be durable and not easily warped, choice being therefore made of pear-, beech-, and box-wood, thin boards (about one inch) of which are glued on the back of similar boards of oak or beech, which in turn are backed by blocks of pine, the latter being recessed so as to hold better. The boards must be arranged so that the grain runs in different directions, in order to minimise the tendency to warp. The under (free) side of the first piece of wood is planed smooth.

To transmit the pattern to the block, the designer divides the pattern by horizontal and vertical lines, so as to include within the marked-off portion all the elements of the pattern, these lines being then transferred to the chalked block. The design is next traced with pencil and paper, the tracing being then laid face downwards on the marked block, and the reverse is rubbed over with a hard, smooth tool, the impression being afterwards touched up by hand. As each block can only be used to print one colour at a time, a separate block must be used for each differently coloured portion of the design.

The tracing of the pattern is never so large as the block, and must therefore be transferred as many times as are necessary to cover the surface of the block. Where the repetition of a small

pattern is in question, a small model is often made, the impression being repeated on the block until the entire surface is covered. To ensure accuracy of position, use is made of register pins, which are placed on both sides of the printing block, and in applying the latter, care must be taken to see that the pins on the left side exactly coincide with the marks left by those on the right-hand side during the previous impression. In succeeding rows, the upper pins must register with the marks left by the lower pins.

The design thus transmitted must be brought into relief by punching the wood with steel punches. Where the printing surfaces are large, it is a frequent practice to merely punch the outlines and fill the intermediate space with felt, which substance absorbs the colour much more uniformly than wood and therefore prints better.

Fine details cut on wood are liable to rapid wear, and are therefore generally done on copper or brass inlaid in the wood block. Frequently, however, the entire surface of the printing forme is of metal, the design being imparted by casting. For this purpose a perfectly dry block of lime-wood, cut crossways of the grain, is taken, and punched with the design, which in this case is hollowed out, the lighter details being burned out by means of heated steel dyes pressed against the wood until the impression has reached a certain depth. The contours of the larger and heavier parts of the design are cut. This done, the hollows are filled with pieces of brass so that the metal projects a few millimetres above the surface of the block, and a molten alloy of tin, lead, and antimony is then applied, which envelops the brass and transmits sufficient heat to the depressions in the wood to carbonise the surface, which is thereby smoothed and deprived of the tendency to shrink. Thereupon the brass is removed, and the resulting wooden matrix or mould is used for making the cast. The casting is trimmed smooth with the file and nailed on to a wooden backing.

Other appliances required for printing with the hand-press are a frame and ink-duct, the former consisting of a strong framework supporting a planed block of hardwood, the dimensions of which vary according to the class of work to be done,—a narrow block being needed for long fabrics, and a wide one for kerchiefs. This block is covered with a tightly stretched layer of flannel (printers' blanket), serving as a soft backing for the goods.

On one of the narrow ends of the frame is an arrangement supporting the roller from which the goods to be printed are unwound. The goods issuing from the press are carried over guide rollers, either on the ceiling of the printed room or underneath the frame, for the purpose of drying the printed colour.

The ink-duct is a rectangular trough, about twenty inches long and wide, and ten inches deep, which is filled about half-full of starch paste, for the purpose of forming an elastic bed, upon which is laid a piece of oilcloth stretched on a frame into which fits a second frame carrying a stretched cloth, the colour being spread out on this last by the aid of a brush as evenly as possible.

To begin printing, the end of the cloth is laid on the press table and marked with a ruler and pencil, to show where the block is to be applied the first time. The block is then brought into contact two or three times with the inking-pad, and then applied to the cloth, a few blows with the mallet forcing the colour into the material; which done, the block is removed, re-inked, and applied again. In this second and all succeeding applications the block must be made to register by means of the aforesaid register pins, which should be situated in such a position that their impression, though visible to the printer, forms part of the coloured design.

In multiple-colour printing, the work is begun with the block giving the most comprehensive idea of the whole design.

In printing "squares," the fabric is first divided by lines indicating the limits of each square. The blocks for this work are mostly arranged to print one quarter of the whole square.

Some colours must be printed warm, for which purpose the inking-pad must be set on hot bricks or immersed in hot water. When readily oxidisable colours are used, they should be stored in the lower part of the inking-pad instead of the starch paste, and be covered over with a porous cloth.

Unless the cloth be kept on the stretch whilst on the press table, it will shrink, both in length and breadth, in the drying, and thus prevent the last-applied colour registering with the previous ones. To obviate this difficulty the colours must be applied in succession as quickly as possible, or else the fabric is stretched in both directions after printing each colour.

Full shades cannot be printed on thick fabrics by the hand-press. The method is specially suitable for the production of multiple-colour printings and for very wide goods, since to employ mechanical presses for these classes of work would necessitate the use of very complex or wide, and in either event very costly, machines. Hand printing is also superior to the machine-press, inasmuch as it does not dirty the white.

The Perrotine Press.

The Perrotine press is a machine for printing from cast-metal plates carrying the design in relief, and resembles the hand-press

in its points of superiority over the cylinder press. The number of colours, however, that can be printed in this press is limited, and it is now used to only a very small extent. A three-colour Perrotine press is shown, as a diagrammatic sketch, in Fig. 36.

Here *a* is the backing cloth, forming an elastic support for the goods; *b* is a piece of unfinished cotton cloth, to keep the backing cloth from being dirtied by the printing colour; *c* is the cloth to

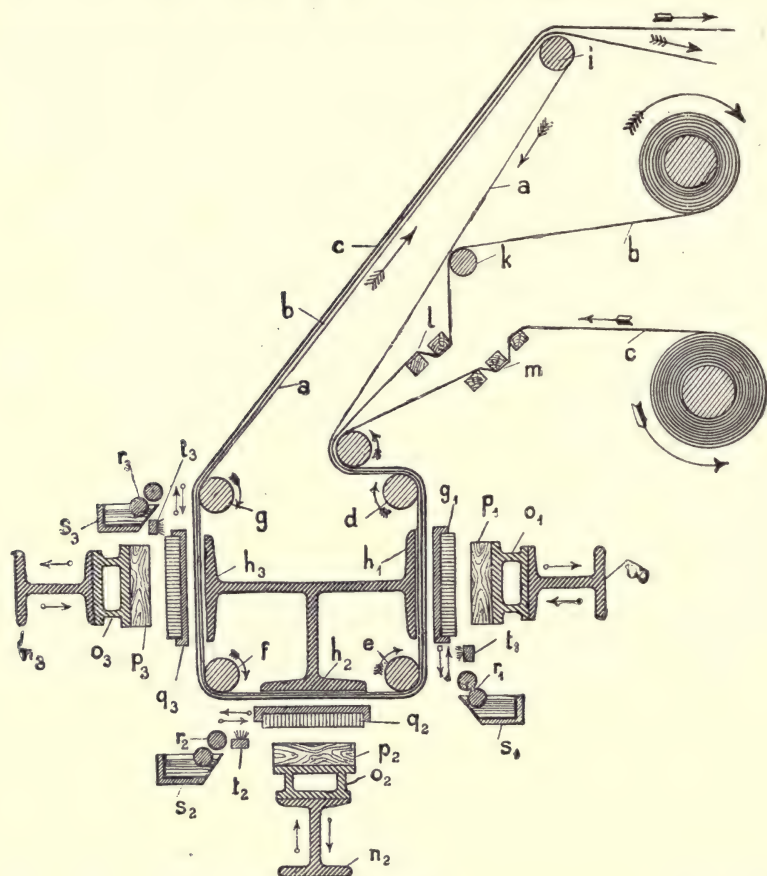


FIG. 36.

be printed; h_1, h_2, h_3 are the printing tables, furnishing the solid backing. The slides n_1, n_2, n_3 , which move in the direction of the arrows, and carry the block-holders o_1, o_2, o_3 , press the blocks p_1, p_2, p_3 alternately against the inking pads q_1, q_2, q_3 , which themselves have a reciprocating motion at right angles to that of the blocks. At the moment the blocks are withdrawn from contact with the printed surface, the pads are moved so as to pass by the pairs of

rollers r_1, r_2, r_3 , which in their rotary motion take up the colour from the ducts s_1, s_2, s_3 , and pass it on to the pads, where it is smoothed level by the brushes t_1, t_2, t_3 . The slides next advance and press the blocks against the pads, then retreat, and, after the pads have been moved slightly to one side, again press the blocks on the pads. The impression then follows immediately, during which operation the pads are moved over the inking rollers. After each impression the backing cloth, intermediate cloth, and cloth to be printed are moved forward a distance corresponding to the exact breadth of the block, so that the goods are fully printed by the time they pass away from the third block. If desired, the advance of the goods can be stayed, and the movement of the printing mechanism continued, the impressions being in such case repeated in exactly the same place as often as required.

The Cylinder Press.

In the cylinder machine the impression is produced by means of engraved rollers, known as copper rollers, though they really consist of an alloy resembling bronze. They are in the form of a hollow cylinder, into which are forced a wedge and a steel spindle carrying a pinion by means of which the cylinder is set in motion.

In this case, therefore, it is necessary for the goods to be pressed into the depressions of the cylinder, in order to take up the colour; hence a heavier pressure is needed than in the case of the hand-press, and the machine must be driven by power—a condition lying at the root of the high productivity of the cylinder press, and one that renders it the sole class of machine suitable for the production of printed goods on a large scale. This press exhibits the further advantages of giving a sharp impression and perfect register in the case of multiple-colour patterns.

The cylinder press may be of either the single-colour or the multiple-colour type, and each press is driven by its own motor.

A single-colour machine will print up to 180 pieces of 60–70 yards each per diem of ten hours. With multiple-colour machines the working speed is much slower, a twelve-colour machine, for instance, only printing about forty pieces a day.

Engraving the Printing Cylinders.—As already mentioned, the design is engraved on the cylinders. In order to hold the colour better on broad parts of the design, the surface there is hatched with V-shaped channels, or punched with conical stipples.

The engraving of the design is effected in various ways. The method apparently at first sight most suitable—namely, to trace the design on the surface, and then cut it out with the graver—is really

the one least in use, and then only employed for the outlines when the portions of the design to be engraved are so large that they do not repeat, or only partly so.

In all other cases, *i.e.* when frequent repetitions of the same figures occur, a small steel roller is prepared, by means of which the pattern is pressed into the surface of the cylinder, the roller being in relief.

The engraving of the cylinder is frequently effected by etching, either alone or in conjunction with the foregoing method. For this purpose the cylinder is coated over with asphalt lacquer, the lines of the pattern being then drawn in the asphalt so as to expose the underlying metal, after which the cylinder is immersed in dilute nitric acid, which etches out the exposed parts and leaves the design engraved on the metal.

The sole decisive factor in the choice of methods is speed. Most frequently the work is done by the aid of a steel roller or "molette," on which the design is formed in relief by the following indirect process, the direct method being too difficult to attempt. For this purpose a steel cylinder of very good quality and suitable length is exposed to red heat for about twelve hours, embedded in a mixture of powdered charcoal and chalk, and placed in an iron box surrounded with loam. It is then covered with ashes and left to cool very slowly for two to three days, whereby the steel becomes soft, and is afterwards turned and polished to the exact size required, *i.e.* until its peripheral measurement is equal to the width of the pattern. The next step is to clean it by scrubbing with lye, levigated chalk, and dissolved soap, followed by a short immersion in a dilute solution of copper sulphate, rinsing, and drying. To transfer the design to this cylinder, a tracing of so much of the pattern as will be printed of the one colour is made upon satin paper, rendered transparent by impregnation with a solution of gum dammar in turpentine, the tracing ink employed containing sodium sulphide. This tracing is wound on the cylinder, fastened thereon, and left for a quarter to half an hour, by which time the design will be developed by the formation of copper sulphide on the surface of the cylinder. The lines thus marked are cut with a steel graving tool shaped like a slightly bent prism of rhombic section and ground off a slant at the end, thus leaving the convex edge of the prism to terminate in a projecting point. After the outlines have been cut out the conical stipples are punched to a certain depth in a machine, then deepened by hand with a hammer and punch, and finally bored out. They must be set at equal distances apart, and in rows of uniform direction. The hatching is effected with double cutter gravers, the one cutting edge working

in the groove already formed, whereby perfect regularity in the position of the hatched lines is secured. Mostly, however, the hatching is produced by etching, the lines being drawn on the asphalted surface by means of a ruling machine. They must be always arranged spirally, and not parallel to the axis of the roller, or they would catch in the ink knife in the operation of printing. Cross hatching is generally employed. When the entire design is composed of hatchings or stipples, the rollers are termed padding rollers, the cloth being printed over its entire surface with a uniform layer of colour, and not in a figured pattern.

The engraving of this roller is conducted under a magnifying glass, the roller being mounted so as to rotate on the graving frame. When the process is completed the roller is polished with fine-grained sandstone and oil, and is punched with a number of coarse stipples outside the limits of the design in order to prevent slipping during the subsequent pressure. It is then hardened by embedding it in sodium paste in the same box that was used for the softening treatment, heated to pale redness, and quickly plunged into cold water several times in succession. As the roller, if too hard, would be liable to spring under the subsequently applied pressure, it is tested with chisels of different degrees of hardness, and, if found too hard, is rendered a little milder by reheating. Finally it is scoured with loam and water, rinsed, and dried.

To produce the actual stamping roller, with the design in relief, from this molette, a steel cylinder, the peripheral measurement of which is a multiple of the first one, is softened, the two being then pressed tightly together by the aid of screw clamps and set in rotary motion. During this operation, whereby the metal of the softened cylinder is forced into the depressions of the hard one, the cylinder is strewn with a mixture of resin, fat, and wax. This mixture is also forced into the depressions of the matrix, and spreads thence over the raised portions of the patrix, so that when the latter is immersed in nitric acid only the unprotected parts are corroded by the acid, the result being to deepen the cuttings. The molettes are again clamped together and pressed, followed by another etching, the series of operations being repeated until the desired effect is completely produced. The stipples designed to prevent slipping are next cut away with hammer and chisel, and their place taken by shallow depressions serving the same purpose.

The finished patrix should be a little thicker in the middle than at the ends, because the latter always wear away quicker, and for this purpose the ends are tapered off by a succession of etchings, commencing at the extremities, after which the roller is finally hardened.

This roller is now employed to transfer the pattern to the actual printing roller, which must be turned down so as to exactly correspond to a multiple of the molette, and is then mounted so as to rotate on its axis, clamped in contact with the molette roller, and set in motion, slowly at first, but more quickly afterwards, plenty of oil being applied. When the design has been cut all round the printing roller, the molette is shifted by a distance exactly corresponding to the length of the pattern, and clamped on again, the whole series of operations being repeated until the full working width of the printing roller has been treated. The projecting portions are then ground smooth, and the roller is cleaned.

It being necessary that the ink should be removed as completely as possible from the raised portions of the cylinder, the surface of the latter must be absolutely true, since the colour would otherwise collect in any irregularities—other than those of the pattern—and dirty the fabric. To produce this perfectly plain surface the cylinder is slightly etched with nitric acid and then lightly ground, which will reveal the projecting portions by the contrast between their smooth surface and the dulness resulting from the etching. These prominences are removed by etching, the hollows being lacquered over and the cylinder dipped in nitric acid. Finally, the whole cylinder is gently ground. Faulty engravings, as well as old patterns to be replaced by new ones, are removed entirely by grinding.

Engraved designs can be produced on the molette or the printing cylinder entirely by etching. In the first place, the design is brought, by means of a camera obscura, in a five-fold state of magnification, on to a varnished zinc plate, and the details painted in their natural colours in order to facilitate recognition of the parts which are in association and have to be transferred to the same roller. The outlines are then punched out, their dimensions being diminished in a degree determined by experience, because of the tendency of the acid to enlarge them in the etching process. The reduction of the magnified design to its original dimensions in the course of transfer to the printing roller is effected by means of the pantograph, the stylus of which is moved over the outlines on the zinc plate, whilst the diamond engraving point which marks the pattern on the lacquered printing cylinder has an amplitude of movement only one-fifth that of the stylus. A sufficient number of these diamond points is provided to mark the pattern over the whole length of the printing roller at one operation. The roller is then etched in the usual manner, the lacquer washed off, and the etching gone over with the graving tool.

In printing on the cylinder machine the cloth suffers extension mainly in a longitudinal direction, the stretching progressing at each roller, so that on reaching the sixth roller it has attained about one-sixteenth of an inch. In order to counteract this tendency the rollers are made of different sizes (diameter); thus, in a four-colour machine, the first roller is a little smaller than the second and third (which are equal), whilst the fourth and last are a little larger than the intermediate ones. The disadvantage of this method is that the serial order in which the rollers come into action is arbitrarily fixed beforehand. In some works, rollers of equal diameter are used throughout, and the stretching is counteracted by special means, which, however, are not divulged by the users.

Setting and Working a Single-Colour Cylinder Machine.

The chief parts of the single-colour cylinder printing press (Fig. 37) are as follows: (a) the engraved printing cylinder; (b) the backing cylinder; (c) the ink-duct; (d) the inking roller; (e) the scraper; (f) the heating or drying plates.

In this figure the goods to be printed are indicated by *g*, the backing cloth by *i*, and the intermediate cloth by *h*. The path taken by the goods is shown by the arrows, the cloth being unwound from the roller *k*, passed between the printing and the backing cylinders, where it is printed, and then led alternately upwards and downwards between drying plates, or dried by circulating through an enclosed hot chamber (*o*), and finally delivered in folds at *l*.

Successful printing depends on several points of detail, including chiefly — a properly compounded printing colour and well prepared printing cylinder being presupposed — the accurate working of the scraper. As already stated, this organ serves to scrape off the colour from all the unengraved parts of the cylinder. It consists of a thin steel blade which is pressed against the printing cylinder, in the direction of rotation of the latter, by means of a weighted lever placed on one side, and receives a reciprocating motion by the action of an eccentric rod actuating a bell-crank lever. The upper edge is ground sharp, though in some cases (*e.g.* striped patterns) a rounded edge is preferred. When acid colours are used, the scraper must be protected by a coating of varnish. In some cases a second or counter scraper is provided (*m*, Fig. 37), mounted in the opposite direction to the movement of the cylinder, its use being to remove any fine nap that has become separated from the fabric, and prevent the same from getting into the colour; this scraper is immovable.

The backing or pressure cylinder serves as a solid abutment for the printing roller. To make this pressure elastic, the backing

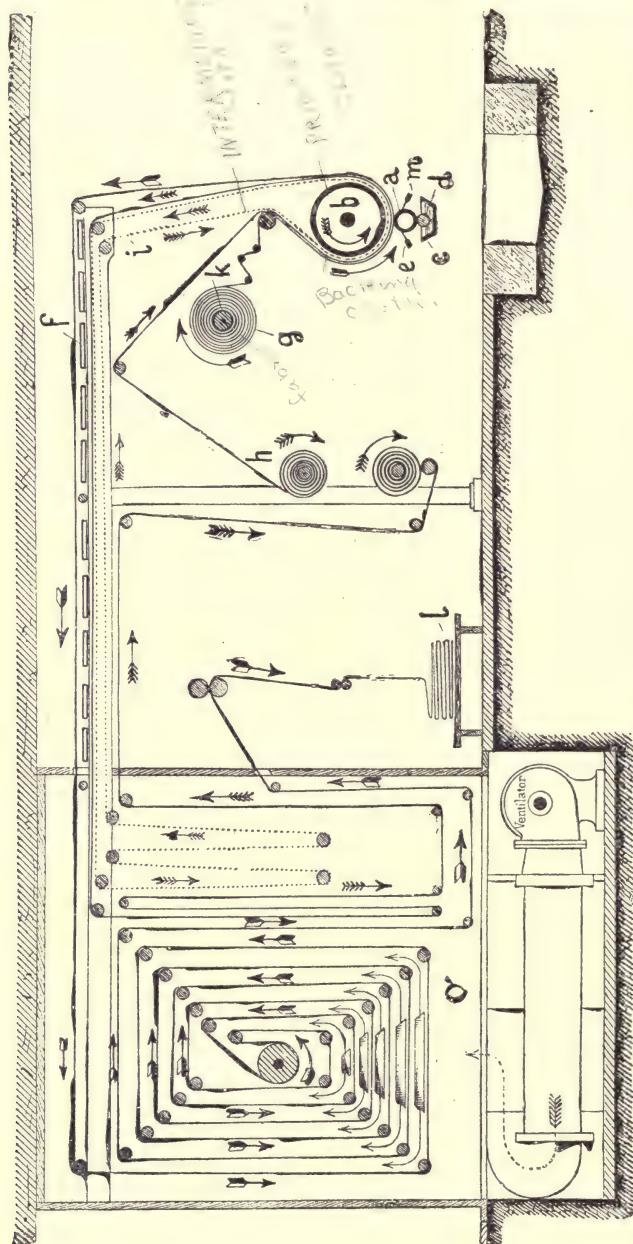


Fig. 37.

cylinder is mounted in adjustable bearings, which can be moved up and down in grooves by the aid of a train of levers, the pressure on

the printing cylinder being increased at will by weighting the levers. The necessary accurate parallelism of the two cylinders is secured by the aid of strong screws, and the elasticity of the pressure is increased by covering the backing cylinder with several layers of tightly stretched printer's blanket. The same object is effected by the backing cloth (*i*, Fig. 37), an endless cloth composed of several layers of stout cotton fabric fastened together with caoutchouc; in this case, as also in the blanket clothing the cylinder, all wrinkles must be entirely avoided. The intermediate cloth, which keeps the backing cloth from becoming stained by the printing colour, is of rough gassed cotton fabric, which after a while is cleansed by bleaching. It runs between the cloth to be printed and the backing cloth. After passing through the machine all three cloths are dried by being led between hot plates (*f*, Fig. 37), which are generally placed in the rear of the machine; or by circulating through a closed hot chamber. The intermediate cloth is afterwards washed and used over again; though a better way is to keep this cloth in continuous motion, washing it by passage through a water-trough and roller brushes, after leaving the press, and then drying it on a hot cylinder.

In printing, the printing cylinder is set in motion by toothed gearing, and carries the backing cylinder round with it. A piece of the intermediate cloth is first passed between the cylinders, and the extra piece, attached to the cloth to be printed, is also passed through and fixed on to the guide bands leading to the drying apparatus. Both the goods and the intermediate must be quite straight, free from folds, and passed into the machine at a certain tension, which is attained by applying weights to the axes of the rollers on which these cloths are wound, in order to ensure uniform pressure against the bearings.

The pull exerted by the two cylinders on the goods and intermediate cloth in order to unwind them from their respective rollers must never be so great as to damage the fabric, and should remain as uniform as possible during the operation of printing—an object attained by the aforesaid weighting.

The task of the printer consists in watching the fabric as it passes through the machine, so as to immediately detect any defects in the printing. This is arduous work, and requires the aid of a good light to perform successfully, on which account the machine is generally set up in front of a large window. As soon as the first yard has passed through the machine the printer must satisfy himself, by turning up the edges of the stuff, that the pressure is equal on both sides; the colour should show through at the back to an equal degree on both edges. The defects arising in printing

generally originate in the scraper. Thus, if any solid substance, for example, get between the scraper and the printing cylinder and lift up the former a little, the scraper will cease to act for that instant, and will thus leave a cross stripe of colour on the cylinder. Should the solid obstruction (*e.g.* a grain of sand) remain, the scraper will be prevented from acting on the colour at that particular spot, and a longitudinal stripe of colour will therefore be formed. Similar stripes are also produced when the scraper has become worn in places through constant friction against the engraved roller. If the edge of the scraper has not been ground sharp enough, the impression of the outlines will be fuzzy instead of clear. When the printing cylinder is not true, the scraper will not touch such parts as are below the general level.

Another cause of defective printing may reside in the colour, especially when this does not properly come off on to the cloth, but remains in part in the channels of the engraved surface. When such is the case, the inking roller must be replaced by a roller brush. In the case of colours, like chrome yellow, that exhibit this defect in a higher degree, a second stationary brush must be fixed up in front of the printing cylinder.

In any event, as soon as any defect in the printing is noticed, the printer must stop the machine and remove the cause. As the scraper is the chief cause of defects, this tool must be reground after a certain number of pieces have been printed.

When a change of colour is made, the printing cylinder, scraper, and ink-duct must all be thoroughly cleaned, the best plan being to keep separate sets of brushes and cleaning cloths for blue, red, and in fact for each different colour used.

Setting up and Working a Multiple-Colour Machine.

Although cloth-printing machines have been constructed to print as many as twenty, twenty-five, and even more colours, it is not usual to go higher than twelve, since the heavy pressure to which the fabric is exposed necessitates the employment of stronger colours (*i.e.* richer in pigment). The machines most frequently are two to six-colour presses.

The multiple-colour machine has a separate printing cylinder, ink-duct, ink-roller, and scraper, for each roller; a three-colour machine, therefore, having three printing cylinders, three ink-ducts, three inking rollers, and three scrapers. On the other hand, there is only a single backing cylinder, backing cloth, and intermediate cloth, as in the single-colour machine.

In this case the arrangement for producing elastic pressure is

somewhat different. The backing cylinder, the size of which depends on the number and size of the printing cylinders, is mounted on bearings that can be raised and lowered by means of screws, but it is kept fixed during printing. The set of levers mentioned in the single-colour machine acts in this case on the lowermost printing cylinder, the others being pressed against the backing cylinder, either by the aid of screws fitted with rubber rings or else by means of levers.

The principal difference in the method of working the two classes of machines consists in the method of producing the register, *i.e.* the proper relative adjustment of the various parts composing the pattern. For this purpose a special device is required,—the wheels mounted on the different roller spindles, which are driven

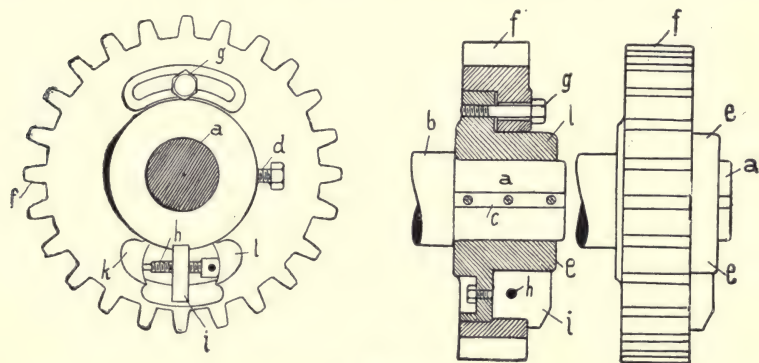


FIG. 38.

by a pinion in the centre, being fitted with a device which enables any difference in the movement and situation of the individual rollers to be compensated; these wheels are therefore called register wheels. A sleeve *e* is fastened on the trunnion of the printing cylinder *b* by means of the spring key *c* and set screw *d*, and is loosely connected with the driving-wheel *f* by means of the screw *g*. A screw *h* passes through the lug *i* on the sleeve *e*, and rests at both ends against two half-moon lugs *k l* on the printing cylinder wheel. On turning the screw in one or the other direction by means of a key-pin passing through the head (which can be done whilst the machine is running), the sleeve *e* is moved in an axial direction, and imparts a similar movement to the printing cylinder, so that in this way the rollers can be brought into register when either too far ahead or behind. It is, however, necessary to have the register approximately correct before starting, and this is effected in the following manner:—

The lower roller is first put into position and set parallel to the

axis of the backing cylinder, the other rollers being then put in and set parallel to the first. The cylinders having been marked by the engraver at the place where they correspond, that on the first roller is now marked with chalk, and the machine is started slowly, only the intermediate cloth being run through at first. This chalk-mark prints off on the intermediate cloth, and the resulting impression should exactly coincide with the corresponding marks on the other cylinders if the register is correct. This will rarely if ever be the case at the outset, and it will be necessary for the printer to adjust the register either by a lateral movement of the rollers or by means of register wheels. This having been approximately done, the ink-duct is filled with colour, and a remnant of cotton fabric is run through the machine, the resulting impression showing what additional correction is required to obtain a perfectly accurate register.

In beginning to print, the machine is first run very slowly; and the printer must give careful attention to all the points already mentioned in connection with single-colour printing; in addition to which he will have to look after the register all the time the printing continues, since slight alterations of register are constantly occurring, as a result either of slight modifications in the tension of the fabric, or from other causes. This work of adjustment can always be carried out while the machine is running, stoppages being avoided as much as possible, since they are liable to produce light streaks on the goods, in consequence of the colour running out of the engraved parts near the point of contact with the material.

An unavoidable inconvenience in multiple colour-printing on the cylinder machine is, that the colour cannot be completely removed from the smooth parts of the cylinders by the scraper, and consequently small particles of colour are left on the material, and get mixed with the next following colour. On this account great care must be taken to use the most delicate colours (*e.g.* pink, yellow, pale blue), first leaving those capable (like black) of doing most damage until last. To prevent a clouding of the colour by preceding colours, a so-called water-roller is placed between each two-printing cylinders. This consists of a smooth cylinder, provided with a scraper, and fed with a thin solution of tragacanth or gum. Sometimes the final printing cylinder is followed by a smooth cylinder, which presses the colour into the material, this being employed when it is desired to have the pattern on thin material shown up about the same on both sides, so that the corresponding parts exactly coincide, as in the duplex printing machines, which will print up to eight colours on each side, the method of working being shown in the diagrammatic sketch (Fig. 39).

Really the machine consists of two machines, each having its

own backing cylinder, backing cloth, and intermediate cloth. The engraving on the rollers of the one machine is to those on the other as image and reflection.

Before beginning to print the actual fabric, about thirty yards

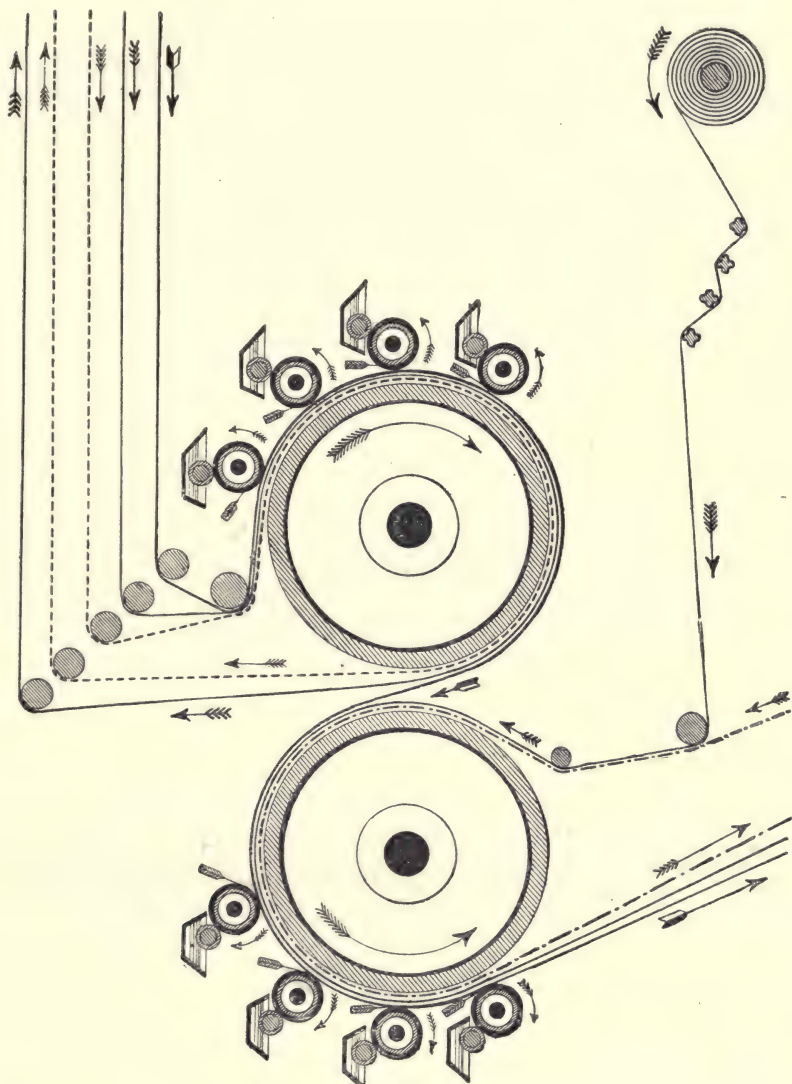


FIG. 39.

of material are run through the machine to enable the rollers to be adjusted and set in register. For the latter purpose all the rollers of each separate machine are connected with a large register wheel, to that the whole of the rollers can be adjusted to the same extent

by a single register screw. After the impression the stuff is passed over a water-roller. Printing on both sides is more particularly employed for the production of curtains and upholstery goods and calico-printing.

CALICO-PRINTING.

The goods intended for calico-printing must be first bleached in the most complete manner possible. Some colours are printed on prepared fabric; others without this preliminary treatment. The preparation consists in padding the fabric in a solution of Turkey-red oil (about 9 oz. per gallon), followed by drying. Some colours, especially alizarine red and rose-red, show up much brighter on prepared stuffs, and this property of Turkey-red oil is also utilised to revivify certain colours that have suffered under treatment subsequent to printing (*e.g.* by chroming), the goods in this case being padded with Turkey-red oil, dried, and gently steamed for a short time.

The different styles of calico-printing are as follows:—

- ✓1. Production of the pattern by direct printing.
2. Combined dyeing and printing.
3. Discharge style printing.
4. Reserve style printing.

1. Reproduction of Pattern by Direct Printing.

In this case the principal thing to be considered is the colour, its preparation, and fixing.

The printing colour contains a solution or suspension of one or more dye-stuffs, solvents such as alcohol or organic acids, mordants, tannin, thickening material, and occasionally other substances as well.

The dye-stuffs must be always of the same strength, and consequently have to be first tested by a sample printing. Each dye-stuff is dissolved separately, the solution being used only in a filtered condition. Dye paste should be carefully stirred up before being sampled; and solid dyes must be reduced to the finest possible state of division for use.

The mordants are, for the most part, salts of acetic acid, which are prepared in a concentrated form by the printer, and kept in stock, it being difficult to increase the concentration, though dilution with water can be effected as required. The fixing agent used is tannin, generally dissolved in water and acetic acid.

Oleic acids (Turkey-red oil) are frequently added to brighten colours, but are not used for fixing. Both the mordant and the

fixing agents must be tested by an experimental printing, to determine their quantitative relation to the dye and influence on the shade and brightness.

The adjuncts to printing colours are acetic acid, tartaric acid, sodium chlorate, olive oil, fats (tallow, lard, etc.), turpentine, glycerine, and sal ammoniac; other adjuncts being used only in exceptional cases. Acetic acid serves to dissolve the dye-stuffs and colour lakes, a purpose also served by the less frequently used tartaric acid. Sodium chlorate is added as an oxidising agent to some colours—aniline black, logwood, etc. Olive oil softens the colour and facilitates printing, the same effect being produced by other fats. Turpentine is added to some colours to prevent frothing in the ink-duct.

On account of its non-drying properties, glycerine forms a useful adjunct to many colours, especially such as are prepared with gum or albumin; it prevents frothing, softens the colour, and keeps it from drying on the printing cylinder. Sal-ammoniac, being hygroscopic, is added to colours which it is advisable to prevent drying quickly, *e.g.* aniline black.

Thickening Agents.—These consist chiefly of wheat starch, flour, baked starch, gum, and albumin. Wheat-starch is perhaps the most frequently used for thickening in calico-printing. The paste is prepared by stirring up the starch to a thick pulp, with a little water, and gradually adding more water until a thin milk is produced, whereupon the rest of the water is added all at once, and the whole is boiled until the thickened paste begins to turn a little thinner. It is then cooled and stirred until quite cold, to prevent it getting mouldy.

Boiling is effected in pans of the type shown in Fig. 40. Steam heat is used, the steam being admitted through *f*, *g*, and *h* in the steam jacket *b*, the excess and condensed water being drawn off at *c*. When the boiling is finished, the steam is shut off, *c* is opened, and cold water is run into the jacket from *i*, through *m*. Stirring is effected by so-called planet stirrers *l*, the stirring paddle, in addition to rotating on its own axis, also describing a circular path round the inner wall of the pan. To empty the pan the stirring apparatus is uncoupled at *t*, *v*, and the pan is tipped about on its horizontal axis after the paddles have been taken out. This thickening material is generally prepared in two strengths, the one containing 100 parts, the other 150 parts by weight of starch per 1000 parts of water, the strength being accordingly expressed by $\frac{100}{1000}$ and $\frac{150}{1000}$.

Wheat starch paste is unsuitable for colours containing strong acid or some strong acid salts, which act upon it and convert it

into dextrin, which forms a thinner solution. Acetic acid, however, produces no change, even on boiling.

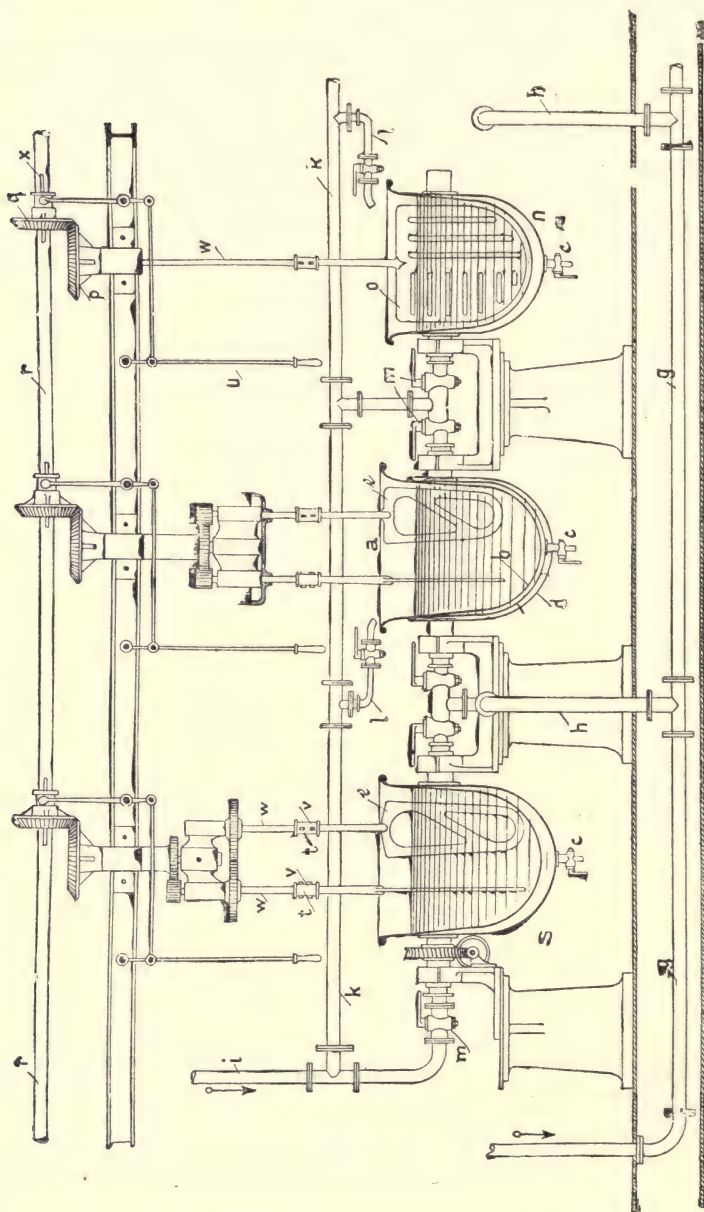


FIG. 40.

As a rule, the starch is merely tested for its thickening properties, and for the presence of insoluble foreign matters such as sand, etc. In the first test, starch of acknowledged quality is

employed for comparison, a thin paste of equal concentration being prepared from each, and their consistence compared by allowing them to drop from a spatula. To test for insoluble matters capable of forming scraper streaks in printing, the starch is stirred up to a thin milk with water, whereupon the solid foreign matter will quickly subside and can be examined after the liquid is poured off.

Two kinds of roasted starch are prepared, namely, light and dark, the former being a light brown powder, which is mixed with water in the proportion of 7 parts to 5, 5 additional parts of water being then added, and the whole boiled for about two hours. To the same class also belong a number of white products, *e. g.* dextrin, prepared by heating wheat starch to about 100°C . with dilute acid; British gum, a dextrin from rice and maize starch; Leio gum is a roasted potato starch, and crommelin and *ly-chow* are similar products. These light roasted starches do not thicken so strongly as starch itself, but are very useful for thin colour. They are soluble in water in all proportions, the thickening solution being prepared by dissolving one part by weight in one to two parts of boiling water.

Dark roasted starch is prepared by roasting starch at about 200°C . In consequence of excessive roasting, it often contains a brown insoluble substance which would choke up the engraving, and must therefore be kept out of the printing colour. To determine the value of starch of this kind, a small quantity, about 10 grms., is dissolved in half a litre of water, and left to stand awhile in a graduated cylinder, the insoluble sediment being then measured. The utility of the sample is in inverse proportion to the amount of this sediment.

This dark roasted starch has only about one-fifth to one-sixth the thickening power of weak starch. In consequence of the sugar content it may serve to retard the oxidation of certain dye-stuffs or iron mordants. When printed it does not penetrate so deep into the fibre as unroasted starch; also when dried it is more readily softened by water, and can therefore be more easily washed out of the fabric than the latter. It is very useful for strongly acid dyes, and is really the only suitable thickening for strongly alkaline dyes. The solution is prepared by stirring up 10 parts of the starch with 5 parts of water, then adding another 5 parts of water, and boiling the whole up for two hours. All the different gums used are chiefly made of gum arabic, tragacanth, and Senegal gum.

Gum arabic is one of the oldest thickenings used, and is particularly suitable for pale clear tints. Both raw and roasted starch cause the fibre to look darker and stronger than when printed with

gum thickening. The colours thickened with gum dry quickly and contract the material, on which account gum is unsuitable for printing mordants, because in this case the colours do not show up full when subsequently dyed.

The contraction of the material by gum can be prevented by adding a little pipeclay. Gum arabic being dear, it is wherever possible replaced by light roasted starch or tragacanth. Frequently it is used for colours that must be applied in concentrated solution, in which case it is strewn in the form of powder. The solution of gum arabic is prepared by stirring up the gum with boiling water, and then either boiling or leaving to stand until dissolved. Should the solution be lumpy, an adulteration with insoluble gums is indicated. The usual strength of the solution is either 1000 parts or 800 parts per 1000 of water. As dissolved gum readily falls a prey to acid fermentation, the solution should be prepared in small quantities only, and stirred in a cool place. Fresh solutions of gum should not be put into vessels containing remnants of old solution.

Senegal gum, although very cheap, is not in much favour; it sticks too fast to the fabric, and therefore can only be used with colours that will stand vigorous washing. It imparts a certain smell to the material.

Tragacanth is a very important thickening, and is used in a thick mucilage or as tragacanth water. The thick mucilage is prepared by suffusing tragacanth with hot water (60 parts per 1000 of water), leaving to stand for twenty-four to twenty-eight hours, and then boiling in a closed cylinder until the mucilage has become perfectly homogeneous (four to six hours). The thickening most frequently employed, especially for tannin colours, is a mixture of equal parts of wheat starch paste and tragacanth mucilage ($\frac{60}{1000}$). This is sometimes known as mark 1/1. The thickening power of all these substances is tested in exactly the same way as with wheat starch; in some cases, especially gum arabic, they are also tested to see if they cloud the thickening colour, for which purpose a sample print is made with a light colour, such as pale blue and methylene blue.

These thickenings are mostly prepared separately, and then added to the corresponding colour solutions and adjuncts before use. A few of the readily soluble substances are sometimes mixed in the solid state with the warm thickening; fats must always be boiled in mixing; dyes and mordants, on the other hand, must only be mixed cold, since otherwise precipitation might occur through the formation of lakes. Formerly the printing colours, especially those containing starch, were generally boiled, *i.e.* the starch was mixed

not only with water, but also with the dye-stuffs and several necessary adjuncts (except mordants), and then boiled for an hour or longer in the same pans as used for making wheat-starch paste (Fig. 40).

Apparently the sole object of this in most cases was to combine the gelatinisation of the starch and the mixing with the other ingredients in one operation. This is still done when a better incorporation of the ingredients can be secured by boiling them all together, *e.g.* in the case of colours containing dye-wood extracts. Since most printing colours contain acetic acid and olive oil, these substances are very often added in preparing the starch paste, from one-tenth to three-tenths of a gallon of 6° B. acetic acid—according to the colour—and about 3½–7 oz. of olive oil per gallon of thickening being used. In the case of starch-tragacanth thickening, the finished tragacanth mucilage is also boiled over again. A special type of thickening is that prepared from albumin, inasmuch as it also acts as a fixing agent on the colour. For bright colours, egg albumin is used; for all others the less pure, but much cheaper, blood albumin. The first named is prepared from white of egg; the blood albumin by freeing blood from fibrin and then evaporating it in vacuum pans. The solution of this albumin in water must be prepared in the cold, about 65 lb. of albumin being steeped in 6½ gals. of water for twenty-four hours, at the end of which time 1½ gal. of turpentine is added to prevent frothing in the ink-duct, and half a gallon of ammonia to keep the solution from turning acid. When the colour, thickened with albumin and printed upon a fabric, is exposed to heat, *e.g.* by steaming, the albumin coagulates, being thereby deposited on the fabric in an insoluble and adherent form, and thus acting as a fixing agent for the colour with which it is mixed. All thickenings must be strained for the removal of lumps and solid particles, and this is effected either by putting them in a bag strainer and forcing them through the meshes of the fabric by pressure and twisting, or placing them on sieves and working them about with brushes by hand or mechanical appliances in imitation of hand labour, in order to rub them through. It is also advisable to strain the finished printing colour after the addition of the thickening material to the other ingredients.

All these thickenings and other dissolved substances used in preparing the printing colour are measured out in graduated copper vessels, which is quicker than weighing; dye-stuffs and dye pastes, however, are weighed. The finished colour is stored in earthenware vessels or wooden casks, which are marked to prevent confusion. If a lighter shade of an already prepared printing colour is required, it may be obtained by diluting the latter with a given weight of the

same thickening that was originally employed; for example, a red printing colour thickened with starch paste and numbered "red 100" is reduced with three parts of the same starch paste; this reduced or diluted colour will then be numbered "red 100 $\frac{1}{3}$." In diluting tannin colours the diluent thickening should receive an addition of sufficient tannin as to contain approximately the same percentage of tannin as the printing colour itself. This is necessary because the thickening material and the cotton both absorb certain quantities of tannin.

To calculate the cost of a printed article, the amount of colour consumed in printing a single piece must be taken into consideration as well as the price of the printing colour itself. This is done in the following simple manner:—

The colour is weighed before use, and again after a certain number of pieces have been printed, the difference in weight giving the amount consumed.

Employment of Mordant Dye-Staffs.

Thanks to their fastness, the mordant dyes play a predominant part in calico-printing. They are all so-called "steam" dyes, because the aid of steam is necessary to effect the combination of the dye with the mordant, the formation of the colour lake, and the fixing of the latter on the fibre.

Alizarine is the most important of the series. For red and rose it is used along with alumina mordants (with or without tin mordants); with iron mordants for violet, and with chrome mordants for Bordeaux and brown. In the case of red and rose the goods must always be prepared before printing, as otherwise the colour will come out dull and impure. The blue tinge alizarine marks are used for rose, whilst for red those chiefly consisting of flavopurpurine are taken.

Apart from alizarine red, the following are the principal mordant dyes in use for printing:—Alizarine orange with chrome mordants, for various brown shades; alizarine blue with chrome or zinc mordants, for blue; alizarine Bordeaux with alumina mordants, for amethyst; cœruleine with chrome mordants, for green; gallocyanine with chrome mordants, for violet; logwood with chrome and iron mordants, chiefly for brown and black; quercitron and buckthorn berries with tin, alumina, and chrome mordants, for yellows; catechu with chrome and alumina mordants, for brown; redwood (chiefly on account of its cheapness), for mixed colours.

Other dyes are, of course, used, such as galleine with chrome mordant, for violet; alizarine black with chrome mordant, for grey;

oriole yellow with chrome mordant, for yellow, etc., though not to the same extent; and there are various other dyes suitable for the purposes of the calico printer, the employment of which is kept secret.

Without going into special details, not much can be added to what has already been given as to the preparation of the printing colour. The alizarine dyes are mixed with the thickening, in the cold, whereas dye-wood extracts are generally boiled in the course of preparing the thickening. For producing light shades, the printer usually prepares diluted pastes and extracts from the concentrated commercial articles. The proportions of ingredients taken vary in different establishments; the principal thing is to have the correct ratio of dye-stuff to mordant, and in this respect it is always preferable to have too much mordant than too little, because in the latter case the unfixed dye is loosened from the fibre in the subsequent washing and dirties the material. The mordants used almost exclusively are chromium acetate, chromium bisulphite, aluminium acetate, aluminium sulphocyanide, iron pyrolignite, tin salt, tin acetate, and tin paste.

Employment of Basic Dye-Staffs.

An important part is also played by the basic dyes in calico-printing, the following being those most in use:—Auramine, brilliant green, malachite green, methyl green, methylene blue, new methylene blue, turquoise blue, printing blue, acetine blue, methyl violet, methylene violet, safranine, fuchsine, and rhodamine. Some of them exhibit a tendency to encrust on the unengraved parts of the printing cylinder, and in such event a bar covered with flannel must be employed at that part of the cylinder where the counter-scraper is usually placed.

The printing colour consists of three portions, all of which are generally prepared separately, *i.e.* the thickening—mostly wheat starch and tragacanth thickening, 1/1 gum water being often used for delicate tints;—a solution of the dye in acetic acid and water, or acetic acid and alcohol; and a solution of tannin in acetic acid and water. For some colours tartaric acid, or ethyl-tartaric acid, is added as well; this last-named acid, acetine, or levulinic acid being employed as a solvent in the case of the indulines. Colourless tannin should be used for bright light tones, especially for light blue. Most of the basic dyes show up better when printed on prepared cloth.

The basic dyes are used in a special manner for the production of the so-called "Lucca" goods, which constitute an imitation of Indian shawls. The goods are prepared by padding with a solution

of sodium stannate thickened with a solution of casein in water and borax. The dyes are mixed with albumin or various metallic salts, such as aluminium acetate and magnesium acetate, with sodium arsenite and aluminium acetate, with arsenicated glycerine, etc., and a thickening material, and fixed by steaming.

All the printing colours prepared with basic dyes are steam colours, steaming being indispensable to fix them on the fibre.

Employment of the Albumin Dye-Staffs.

Many of the mineral pigments, such as ultramarine, vermilion, chrome yellow, orange chrome, chrome green, various ochres, and lampblack paste (for grey, shaded with ultramarine), being insoluble, cannot be fixed on the fibre in any other way than by mixing them with albumin before printing, the fixation of the colour and the recovery of the albumin being then effected by steaming. Hence these colours also are "steam colours." Occasionally other colours capable of employment in other ways can also be used as albumin colours, *e.g.* buckthorn-berry tin lake, erythrosine—precipitated from its solution by sulphuric acid, and mixed with albumin,—as also solutions of basic dyes, such as methyl violet and fuchsine.

In order to economise the expensive ingredient albumin, it is generally replaced in part with tragacanth mucilage or starch paste; naturally, the lower the proportion of albumin employed, the less satisfactorily will the colour be fixed.

The beauty of the mineral printing colours varies directly with the fineness of division, for which reason it is the general practice to grind the commercial colours (chrome yellow and orange chrome pastes) for a considerable time, in association with a little dissolved gum, in indigo mills. In printing with these colours, the usual inking roller is replaced by a roller brush, and frequently a counter brush must be used as well.

Ultramarine, being difficult to moisten, must be converted into paste with a little alcohol. In using this pigment it must not be forgotten that the same is easily decomposed by acids.

Chrome yellow and orange chrome are printed in association with a salt of cadmium, the object of which adjunct is to counteract the tarnishing effect of sulphuretted hydrogen (PbS) by forming a yellow sulphide.

Several of the albumin colours find their chief use in indigo discharge style printing.

Employment of Direct Dye-Staffs.

Of these dyes, which play such an important part in cotton-dyeing, only a very small number are used, and that, too, for the

production of light grounds. These comprise chrysamine, chloramine yellow, brilliant geranine, diamine pure blue, etc. For the most part, they are simply mixed with the dressing preparation and applied to the material therewith.

Employment of the Developing Dye-Staffs.

The method of applying the ice colours is the same as in dyeing, the fabric being prepared with β -naphthol, dried, and printed with the thickened solution of the diazotised amine.

The instability of the diazo solutions makes itself felt here even more than in dyeing. All these colours have the defect of being unable to stand steaming, and being therefore unsuitable for mixing with steam colours. Nevertheless they play a still more important part in calico-printing than in dyeing.

Aniline black, having already been fully described as oxidation black, requires little additional mention here. The same mixture as before is employed, and, being suitably thickened—preferably with dextrin—is printed on the fabric, the black being then developed just as in dyeing. In order to minimise the injurious effect produced by the acid, a portion of the aniline is used in the free state as aniline oil. When the goods are first printed with a lead salt, for the production of chrome colours, the aniline chloride is replaced by aniline nitrate, since otherwise lead chloride would be formed, and would incrust the scraper of the black roller. Also by using the nitrate less aniline is consumed.

Sometimes a so-called aniline steam black is used, the colour being developed by steaming. These colours are either compounded in the same way as Prudhomme black, or else contain yellow lead chromate instead of ferrocyanide. Moreover, in light patterns an ordinary aniline black can be developed by steaming, in which case the printed goods are first developed in the oxidising chamber, then passed through ammonia vapour, and entered in the warmed and closed steamer—on the floor of which one or two pans filled with ammonia have been placed—where they are steamed in the usual way for about a quarter of an hour.

Aniline black always corrodes the scraper to some extent, and this should therefore be ground afresh after a certain number of pieces have been printed.

The history of the evolution of aniline black is very interesting:—

The first aniline black printing colour was prepared by John Lightfoot in 1863, and consisted of aniline, hydrochloric acid, acetic acid, potassium chlorate, cupric chloride, sal-ammoniac, and starch

paste. When this black was printed without copper, by the aid of a wooden roller, it did not develop at all, but the black showed up after being placed in contact with a metal plate for a short time, from which behaviour Lightfoot concluded that metals were essential to the development of the black. However, the employment of soluble copper salts proved a failure, owing to the formation of a precipitate of aniline black within the colour itself. Subsequently attempts were made to obviate this by impregnating the goods with a solution of copper sulphate by padding, and employing a colour, free from copper, for the printing. In this case, however, the white of the fabric must be cleaned by treatment with ammonia. Finally, recourse was had to insoluble copper salts, like copper ferrocyanide or copper hydroxide; in fact, the recommendation made by Lauth in 1864 to use copper sulphide is still followed at the present time. For hand printing, however, copper sulphate must be retained, because the paste preparations readily incrust the block.

It is now known that metals are not essential for the development of aniline black; all they do is to decompose the chlorate, which object can also be effected by the aid of acids.

A further important advance was the introduction of aniline tartrate, as a substitute for the chloride, by C. Koechlin in 1865, thus making it possible to print even the finest fabrics with aniline black without any risk of corrosion. The quantity of tartaric acid employed to dissolve the aniline is between that required for the formation of the neutral salt on the one hand and the acid salt on the other. Without sal-ammoniac it is impossible to obtain a good black; and the action of this salt is explained by the assumption that, by temporarily producing aniline chloride, it helps to start the oxidation.

An aniline black produced with tartaric acid requires much more chlorate—70 per cent. and over—than the ordinary black with aniline chloride. This consideration and the use of tartaric acid render this colour so dear that it is now seldom used.

The mineral colours developed on the fibre in calico-printing are the same as used in ordinary dyeing.

The usual plan in the case of chrome yellow and orange chrome is to print with a suitably thickened mixture of lead acetate and nitrate, and then treat exactly in the manner described in the previous chapter. Iron chamois is seldom used. Berlin-blue is never employed alone in calico-printing, but only as an adjunct to various printing colours, *e.g.* logwood black, and with mordant dyes or tannin dyes for olive green and brown shades, by mixing potassium ferrocyanide therewith, Berlin-blue being then formed, in the presence of acids, by the heat of the steam chamber.

A "steam chrome yellow" and "steam orange chrome" are produced in printing with lead acetate and nitrate in conjunction with barium chromate paste, and then steaming.

A manganese bistre can also be produced as a steam colour by printing a mixture of sodium or potassium bichromate, manganous chloride, and sodium acetate, the oxidation being effected by steam.

Employment of the Vat Dye-Staffs.

Indigo is fixed on the fibre by the Schlieper and Baum glucose method. Its principal use is in the production of red and blue patterns by over-printing goods dyed with Turkey-red.

The *modus operandi* is as follows:—The fabric is first impregnated with a solution of grape sugar by padding, and then well dried. The printing colour consists of a thickened mixture of finely ground indigo paste and concentrated caustic soda, and the main point to be watched in its preparation is to prevent the mixture heating. The pressure applied in printing should be slight, in order to prevent the colour being forced too deeply into the fabric. The goods are then dried in a hot-air chamber to prevent the conversion of the sodium hydroxide into sodium carbonate—which would have a reducing action in the subsequent operations—and then steamed in a special chamber, where they are exposed for a few seconds to steam that is free from air, the colour being thereby fixed through the reduction of the indigo to indigo white. Next follows, without delay, washing in a copious supply of water, preferably in a roller washer and full width; this removes the caustic soda and oxidises the indigo white to indigo blue.

Other methods for producing indigo blue on the fibre are the "propionic acid print" and the method with Kalle's "indigo salt," in accordance with which methods indigo should be classed with the developing dye-stuffs.

Indigophenol blue gives fast tones, very similar to indigo, when printed, though unfortunately it is very sensitive to steaming, and therefore cannot be combined with steam colours. Nevertheless a short steaming is indispensable for the fixing of the dye, despite the dulling effect thereby produced; and, indeed, the longer the steaming the faster the colour to washing and soaping.

To prepare the printing colour, the indigophenol is boiled with acetic acid, wheat starch, and tragacanth mucilage, and then mixed cold with a fivefold quantity of 20° B. tin acetate, with which it is left to stand for some time in order to effect the reduction to indigophenol white. After printing, the goods are left in the warm oxidising chamber for about thirty-six hours, then passed

through ammonia vapour, to neutralise the acid in the printing colour, followed by a passage through the Mather and Platt, and by steaming in an enclosed chamber for a half to one hour, under low pressure. A pan filled with ammonia is placed on the floor of the steaming chamber. Finally the goods are washed—also treated with potassium bichromate, if necessary—and hot soaped.

Employment of the Acid Dye-Staffs.

The acid dye-stuffs which are unsuitable either for the dyeing or printing of cotton, are very seldom used in calico-printing; actually only for the so-called "Lucca" goods. The colours are fixed in the same way as in the case of the basic dyes for the same purpose. The dyes chiefly used are coralline, a few ponceaus, alkali blue, water blue, etc.

Latterly it has been found that the eosines can be fixed on cotton by the aid of chromium acetate, after the manner of the mordant dyes.

For the production of various tints in calico-printing, use is made of the above-named dyes, either separately or in combination.

Green is produced with the green tannin dyes and fast cœruleine, either by itself or shaded with one of the yellows specified, whereby a variety of olive green shades is obtained. Chrome green is chiefly used in indigo discharge style printing.

Bright Yellow.—For this purpose buckthorn berries and tin mordant form the main dye-stuff, auramine and chrome yellow coming next. Various yellows are also furnished by buckthorn berries in association with other mordants, as well as by quercitron, oriole yellow, and light yellow with direct dyes.

For **orange**, use is chiefly made of alizarine orange and orange chrome; for **red**, alizarine and alumina mordant; eventually yellowed and enlivened by the addition of tin mordant; nitraniline red being also used, though this last is unsuitable for combining with steam colours. Vermilion is still largely used in indigo discharge style printing.

Rose-red is produced with alizarine and alumina mordant; for topping, use is made of direct dyes.

Bordeaux is chiefly produced with alizarine and chrome mordant, and with ice colours.

Fast violet tints are produced with alizarine and iron mordant, galloeyanine, and chrome mordant, and a mixture of methylene blue and safranine. Vivid fugitive violets are obtained with methyl violet.

A comparatively large number of dyes are employed for **blue shades**. Pure greenish blue tints are produced with methylene blue, new methylene blue, turquoise blue, and a very greenish ultramarine; for dark blues, use is made of the indulines, or brilliant alizarine cyanines; for grey-blue tints, alizarine blue with chrome or zinc mordants—the colour being more brilliant, but less stable, with the latter; for shades similar to alkali blue, ultramarine and a few direct dyes for topping. Finally, there are indigo blue and dianisidine blue, which cannot well be combined with the steam colours, and are only used for a few special articles.

Dark brown tints are mostly produced with alizarine, logwood, quercitron, and chrome mordants; medium and light browns with catechu—with or without basic dyes and dyewood extracts, or with the last named. In these cases especially an endeavour is made to produce the necessary blue tinge by adding potassium ferrocyanide to the printing colour. Finally, for brown discharge style printings, use is made of manganese bistre, and for single-colour work, the ice colours.

Black is produced with logwood and chrome mordant, shaded with quercitron; indigo bottoming, *noir réduit*, and alizarine black. Grey is obtained with logwood, lampblack paste, or with alizarine black and chrome mordant.

Treatment of the Goods when Printed.

After printing, the goods are passed through a whole series of operations, comprising hanging in the oxidation chamber, putting through the Mather and Platt, steaming, the tartar emetic bath, the chalk bath, chroming, washing and soaping, malting, dung and malt baths, bran bath, chemicking (chloring), and dressing.

Leaving out of the question the last process of all, which will be dealt with separately later on, the object of the series of after-treatments is threefold—(1) fixing the colour; (2) purifying and enlivening the colours; (3) cleansing any white that may be present.

In most cases the goods are not fixed at all in the printing process, and could be completely washed off the fabric; consequently the most important operation of these complementary processes is that of steaming, which effects the fixation of the colour, and, in the case of mordant dyes, develops and fixes the colour lake. The vat dyes and developing dyes alone do not require steaming. The oxidation chamber and Mather and Platt treatments are preparatory to the steaming process, whilst the tartar emetic and chalk baths, and chroming, serve to complete

the fixation of the colour in some cases. All the other operations are performed with the object of removing the thickening materials—since these dull the colours—to cleanse and brighten the colour, and also thoroughly clean the white from any stains arising from the imperfect action of the scraper in the printing press.

The passage through the oxidation chamber and the Mather and Platt are chiefly designed for the elimination of the excess of volatile acids contained in the printing colour. If strongly acid printing colours were immediately exposed to steaming, the liberated acid vapours might injure the colour as well as the goods. Hence it is necessary to pass goods that have, for example, been printed with sulphocyanides (alizarine red with aluminium sulphocyanide) two or three times through the Mather and Platt, or leave them two days in the warm oxidation chamber before steaming. At the same time these two operations also assist in the gradual formation of the colour lake, a consideration not devoid of importance. The goods are hung on rods in the oxidation chamber for about forty-eight hours (the hygrometer registering about 32–36°) during which time they are turned once, so that the parts at the top take up a position at the bottom, and *vice versa*. Frequently, however, the oxidation chamber is used merely for drying damp goods.

The passage through the Mather and Platt is given for the same purpose, and is employed more particularly when only a short steaming is required. The speed at which the goods are passed through the apparatus is usually regulated so that each portion of the goods makes a sojourn of one minute therein.

Steaming.—The piece to be steamed is backed with a layer of raw cotton, the object of which is to prevent stains arising from drops of condensed water, and is wound upon a collapsible frame, from which it is then removed—by folding the frame—and hung on a rod mounted on a carriage and caused to rotate by means of an attached cog-wheel. A whole series of pieces are hung in this way on the said carriage, which is then run along a track and introduced into the steaming chamber (Fig. 41).

This chamber may be cylindrical or quadrangular, and is fitted at the bottom with steam admission pipes—perforated with orifices directed downwards—and a pipe for drawing off the water, a horizontal partition being provided near the top of the chamber in order to prevent the dripping of condensed moisture. The apparatus must be warmed up before the goods are introduced, since otherwise the excessive condensation of steam might cause the colours to run. With this object the waste pipe is opened to run off the condensed water, after which steam is turned on, and, as soon as all the water is drawn off, the pipe is shut and

the pressure of steam is raised to about half an atmosphere. At the end of about ten minutes the steam and water are allowed to escape, the door is opened, and the goods entered, whereupon the door is shut and steam turned on, without pressure for the first few minutes, after which the effluents are closed and steaming

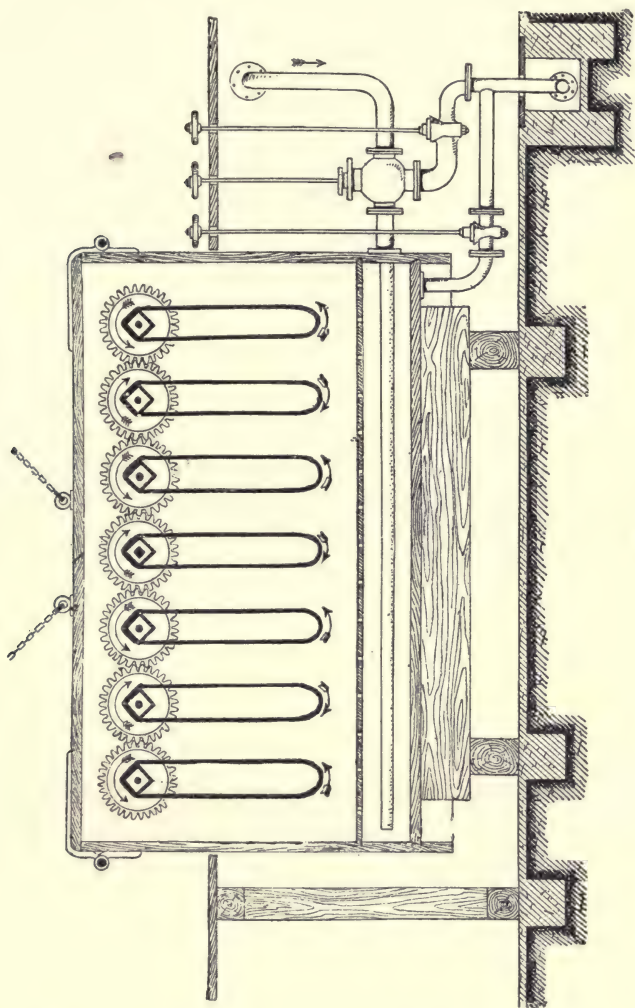


Fig. 41.

continued for a half to two and a half hours, either without pressure or under a pressure of about half an atmosphere, the water of condensation being run off from time to time. Finally, steam is shut off, the doors opened, the carriage drawn out, and another carriage, loaded with goods, introduced in its place, the steaming being then resumed as before. The steamed goods are

unwound, separated from the cotton backing, and passed on for further treatment.

The duration of the steaming process and the pressure employed therein depend on the dye. Albumin dyes are steamed for a half to three-quarters of an hour; tannin dyes for an hour to an hour and a half; mordant dyes for one and a half to two hours. When several different colours are printed on the same piece, the duration of steaming is regulated by the colour that needs to be steamed longest.

Latterly the above method of steaming has been superseded in many establishments by a continuous process, the goods being passed over a series of guide rollers in a chamber filled with steam.

The **tartar emetic bath** is applied only to printings made with tannin dyes, the object being to fix them in a thorough manner by the formation of antimony tannate. The operation is performed in roller becks, through which the goods are passed at such a rate that each part only remains in the vessel one minute. The first bath contains about 3 parts by weight of tartar emetic and 13–15 parts of chalk per 1000 of water, the proportions varying according to the size of the pattern, and, in some cases, amounting to 20 parts and more of tartar emetic. The second bath contains $1\frac{1}{2}$ part of tartar emetic and the same quantity of chalk. The bath temperature is about 70° C. The object of the chalk is to neutralise the potassium bitartrate produced in the bath, the use of other, soluble, alkalis being inadvisable owing to the risk of injuring the colour.

In order to prevent the dulling of delicate colours by the more or less highly coloured bath liquor, the serial order in which the pieces are entered is determined by the sensitivity of the colours; those found by experience to be most liable to contamination by the bath being put through last.

For the same reason the goods are entered face downwards. After the passage of a certain number of pieces, the bath is recuperated by adding more tartar emetic and chalk. Old and foul baths are either run off or else boiled up along with chalk, left to settle, and the clear liquid used over again.

The **chalk bath** is used for goods printed with mordanted colours, and serves to neutralise the residual acid and thus complete the fixation of the colour lake. Just as in the tartar emetic bath, the goods are passed through two roller becks, charged with 1 per cent. of chalk, at a temperature of about 80 – 90° C., and then through a similar vessel containing clean water. The time of immersion in the bath is about one minute, and the bath is replenished after each piece. Goods that contain tannin dyes in addition to mordant dyes do not require to be put through the

chalk bath, the excess of chalk always present in the tartar emetic bath being sufficient for the purpose.

Chroming is applied to secure better fixation of some colours by oxidation and the formation of a lake. The treatment is applied either cold or hot, and the method of performance varies in different establishments. One point to be borne in mind is that some dyes (*e.g.* alizarine red) may sustain alteration by the partial formation of a chrome lake, and in such case a cold or lukewarm chroming is best. The goods are passed through two roller becks, charged with a 4 per cent. solution of potassium monochromate, though in some instances the first bath alone consists of chromate, the second being merely water, which is frequently renewed. Between the two vats the goods are subjected to moderate pressure by a pair of squeezing rollers. Some articles are treated with chromate in just the same way as in steam chemicking (see later). In chroming goods containing alkaline dyes, the bath receives an addition of a little sal-ammoniac (1-2 parts per mil.), the influence of the alkali on the other colours present being diminished by the formation of ammonia or ammonium carbonate.

The chief purpose of washing is to remove the thickening materials present in the printing colour, and the work is performed in machines of different construction according to the resisting power of the colour. The round washer, similar to that illustrated in Fig. 17, except that the upper roller is here replaced by a folding polygonal reel, is generally used; or the aforesaid vat can be employed, in which case the effect is increased by a beating roller mounted on one side. Goods that are very susceptible to the influence of washing are either left unwashed or washed without rubbing. For this purpose, full-width washing machines have been constructed in which the goods are passed through a series of roller becks fitted in places with a number of beaters; or the goods are made to circulate under water, without rubbing or coming up to the surface. To prevent the goods being dirtied by loosened particles of dye, it has latterly been proposed to add certain metallic oxides (zinc oxide, antimony oxide) to the washing water.

Soaping is chiefly resorted to in order to cleanse the white portions of the goods and to revivify the colours, an addition of a little sodium stannate being often given to the soap bath for this latter purpose, especially in the case of alizarine red.

Marseilles soap is used, and should not contain any free alkali. It is inadvisable to introduce the soap in a solid state into the bath, owing to the risk of spotting the goods by the adherence of soapy particles. A solution of soap is therefore prepared beforehand, and a definite quantity is run into the bath for use, the amount depending

on the number of pieces and nature of the dye to be treated, the usual strength being 3–5 parts of soap per mil. of bath liquor.

Mostly the goods are soaped in band form for about half an hour to an hour, at a temperature of 60–70° C. Soaping considerably increases the brightness of alizarine red and alizarine rose, and in this case the goods are boiled in the soap bath for one to two hours; in fact, occasionally, when heavy patterns of alizarine red are in question, they are soaped twice over, or once under pressure in a copper retort. Tannin colours, not being so resistant, are oftentimes soaped only a quarter to half an hour at medium temperature. Should the goods have a considerable surface of white, it is advisable to soap in a full-width machine.

The **thickening materials may be eliminated** from the printed goods in an innocuous manner by treating them with a decoction of malt, this being especially suitable for starch thickenings on account of the solvent action of malt thereon.

A still better plan is to use a bath of cow-dung and malt, the latter removing the thickening, whilst the decoction of cow-dung cleanses the white with less harm to the colour than by soaping. This method is applied to multi-coloured upholstery goods after a slight soaping, as many as five dunging baths being used. They are charged with 5 parts of cow-dung and 6 parts of malt (both boiled in water) per mil., and used at a temperature of 35° C. After the first two baths the goods are washed.

Some articles—logwood black in particular—are cleansed with bran, by treating them in a hot decoction of this substance once or twice over. The solution is prepared by boiling the bagged bran in water, at the rate of 11–12 parts per mil.

Chemicking, or chloring, serves to bleach the white portions of the fabric that have been left somewhat muddy looking by the washing and soaping processes. It is a very important, and in some cases indispensable, operation, since a perfect white is one of the best qualities of printed goods. There are two methods of application—steaming, and the wet process. In the former case the goods are passed through a trough containing bleaching powder solution, squeezed between rollers, and led into a small wooden steaming chest fitted with guide rollers and a false bottom, under which is a steam-pipe. On issuing from this chest, the goods are washed by a flushing jet and also by passing through a roller beck filled with water.

In the other method the goods are passed, printed side downward, through a pair of rollers, the under one of which is covered with flannel, and revolves in a solution of bleaching powder. They are then led over drying cylinders.

The best strength of bleaching powder solution and the method of application, depend entirely on the resisting power of the dyes. Usually the density of the solution is only a few tenths of a degree B., and it is frequently preferable in the case of very sensitive colours to apply a weak solution twice over than to use a stronger one once.

Frequently the chemicking is combined with blueing, a suffusion of ultramarine being added to the bleach solution, in which event the trough is fitted with a horizontal stirrer in order to prevent the ultramarine from settling to the bottom.

No generally applicable rules can be laid down for these various operations, and experience alone must decide which of them is suited to the needs of any particular case, and how they shall be carried out, in order to produce a beautiful white on the printed goods without injury to the colour. Mordant dyes are treated in the oxidation chamber—the Mather and Platt—steamed, chalked, washed, soaped, and, if necessary, chemicked. Tannin dyes are put through the Mather and Platt, then steamed, entered in a tartar emetic bath, washed and soaped with care, and finally chemicked (usually by the dry method). Albumin colours are washed with the greatest possible care after steaming; acid dyes, on the other hand, must not be washed at all. For the most part, these printed goods are prepared by the aid of several very different dyes, and in such event the treatment is governed by the most sensitive of these.

Even one and the same article cannot always be treated in exactly the same manner, consequently the progress of each of the prescribed cleansing operations must be watched in every case, and an attempt made to correct any defects by employing some operation not usually practised, or by repeating one or other of the operations already performed.

Some colours that have suffered during the after-treatment can oftentimes be revived by treatment with Turkey-red oil (see p. 248).

2. Combined Printing and Dyeing.

A second method of producing printed fabrics consists in first printing with one or more mordants and then dyeing with mordant dyes after fixing. Strictly speaking, the articles produced by discharge style or reserve style printing also belong to this category, inasmuch as they too result from a combination of printing and dyeing; nevertheless, the method of working is so different that a separate description is necessary.

The principal consideration in the production of combined effects being the retention of purity in the white portions of the fabric, the operation of oiling previous to dyeing must be omitted, because the oil has a fixing action on many of the dyes.

The suitably thickened mordants must be coloured in order to render the printed impression visible, for which purpose they are mixed with a dye that will easily wash out afterwards, *e.g.* a ponceau. The mixture generally contains an excess of acetic acid. After printing, the mordants are fixed, in the manner described in the section on mordants, and then dyed (*see* Dyeing with Mordant Dyes) along with an addition of size (4 oz. of gelatine per piece of about sixty yards), which prevents the staining of the white. The quantity of dye used depends on the area of the pattern. Red, Bordeaux, violet, brown, and black are chiefly produced in this way.

The mordant used for red consists of aluminium acetate mixed with a little tin salt, yellow-tinge alizarine and size being employed for dyeing out. The stuff is then washed, oiled, steamed, soaped with an addition of sodium stannate, washed, soaped again, washed, and dried in the oxidation chamber. In this case the white must be cleansed by washing and soaping only, since these articles are not chemicked.

Small patterns in alizarine red are also sometimes produced in the same way, notwithstanding the difficulty of cleansing the white. This is done because alizarine red always comes out faster and brighter when dyed than when printed.

The other colours are generally produced in the following manner:—Bordeaux, with aluminium acetate as mordant, and alizarine (bluish tinge), rubine and size as the dye; brown, with aluminium pyrolignite and iron pyrolignite as mordants, followed by dyeing with alizarine and quercitron, under addition of sumach, chalk, and size; violet, with iron pyrolignite as mordant, dyed with alizarine (bluish) and methyl violet, plus size; black, with iron pyrolignite, aluminium pyrolignite and zinc nitrate as mordants, dyed with logwood, quercitron, sumach, and size.

In all these cases, except red, the goods must be chemicked, generally by a double dry chemicking, in order to properly cleanse the white. Black (mourning) goods are mostly treated with bran twice over.

3. Discharge Style Printing.

White or coloured effects may be produced by discharging; in the former case, the task is merely the destruction or solution of the mordant, fixing agent, or the dye itself; in the other, the following

alternative is open :—(1) The discharge is printed along with a dye, towards which it is inert, and which is afterwards fixed on the fabric ; (2) a mordant is printed along with the discharge, and the colour is produced by a subsequent dyeing.

Colourless discharges must be tinted before use. Some discharges contain such a large proportion of salts that they must be printed warm in order to prevent crystallisation.

The various methods of discharging may be arranged in three classes—

1. Discharging the mordant.
2. Discharging the tannin-antimony fixing agent.
3. Discharging the dye-stuff.

1. *Discharging the Mordant.*

The unoled fabric is padded with a solution of alumina or iron mordant and then dried in the cold, to prevent the discharging being impeded by a premature fixing of the mordant.

The discharge is then printed, the goods being afterwards passed once or twice through the Mather and Platt—after a small sample has been dyed out in order to see how the discharge acts—dunged, washed, and dyed. In this process great care is necessary to guard against setting-off on the part of the discharge, and for this reason the goods must not be laid one upon another until thoroughly dry.

The discharge reagents consist of organic acids ; and as oxalic and tartaric acid salts are sparingly soluble, ammonium citrate is generally used. The presence, however, of large amounts of free citric acid causes the discharge to run. In discharging alumina-iron mordants or weak iron mordants, an addition of sodium bisulphate is made to the discharge ; concentrated iron mordants are discharged with citric acid and tin salt. Latterly, however, the practice of discharging alumina and iron mordants has been abandoned owing to the unreliable character of the operation.

The modern chrome discharge style is produced in a somewhat different manner. The goods are padded with chromium bisulphite, dried, printed with a discharge consisting of sodium chlorate and potassium bromate, steamed for over an hour, chalked, and dyed.

Coloured discharges can be produced on alumina mordants by means of tannin dyes in various ways. For example, the unoled stuff is first mordanted and fixed, and then printed over with a thickened mixture of a tannin dye, with tannin and ammonium citrate. It is then steamed, entered in a tartar emetic bath, washed, and dyed with alizarine (for red) in association with

Turkey-red oil and size. Only a few basic dyes are, however, suitable for this purpose, *e.g.* thioflavine T, Nile blue, and brilliant green.

2. *Discharging Antimony Tannate.*

The fabric is tanned, fixed with tartar emetic, and then printed with strong caustic soda thickened with roasted starch (containing 50 per cent. of 42° B. soda) and qualified with a little turpentine to prevent frothing. It is next dried, passed twice through the Mather and Platt—which should be charged with dry steam—washed several times, and then dyed with a basic dye, the white being afterwards cleansed by washing, slight soaping, and chemicking.

3. *Discharging the Finished Dye.*

Discharging Vat Blue.—Indigo discharge style is a very important branch of calico-printing, and enables finer details to be produced than is possible by reserve printing.

Three different discharges may be used for vat blue—(1) chromate discharge; (2) chlorate discharge; (3) alkaline discharge.

The chromate discharge is the most important, and the one most in use for colour discharge styles. For the production of a white discharge the fabric is printed with a solution of potassium bichromate thickened with starch—the quantity of bichromate depending on the depth of the blue to be discharged—dried, passed through the discharge bath, and well washed. The discharge bath is used at a temperature of 45–50° C. and contains 4 per cent. of oxalic acid and 5 per cent. of sulphuric acid; the time of exposure is a half to one minute. The bath is contained in a small vat, through which the goods are drawn by the aid of guide rollers. The liquor should be thin in order to thoroughly penetrate the material. After leaving this bath, the fabric is washed under a jet and by passing through a roller beck filled with water.

The part played by oxalic acid in discharging is not yet fully elucidated; it is, however, a fact that sulphuric acid does not act so well in the absence of this acid. The assumption is that an unstable oxide is formed, intermediate in composition between Cr_2O_3 and CrO_3 , and parts with oxygen more readily than chromic acid does.

One unavoidable defect of this method is that the fabric is always more or less strongly corroded in the discharged parts. In the case of coloured discharges, however, this defect is absent, since it is unnecessary to discharge the whole of the indigo, and therefore weaker reagents can be used. The colours chiefly employed

are chrome yellow and orange chrome (in paste form), vermilion, chrome green, and various ochres. They are thickened with albumin for printing, this substance then coagulating in the discharge bath and exerting a fixing action on the dyes. In this case neutral potassium chromate must be used as the discharge, since the acid salt coagulates the albumin. Vermilion is the least suitable of all the above-named pigments because of its high price and the readiness with which it rubs off, this tendency varying inversely in proportion to the amount of chromate used for discharging. It is now frequently used in admixture with insoluble red azo dyes.

For pale blue discharge a discharging solution is used that is too weak to entirely decolorise the indigo, but as the resulting colour is too dull to be of any practical value, a little Berlin-blue is added to the discharging agent, or the goods are passed through pure blue. Finally, the colour may be enlivened by the application of a blue dye such as pure blue, methylene blue, etc., in the dressing.

Of late other oxidising agents, such as sodium chlorate and potassium ferricyanide, have come into use, the reaction being aided by steaming. In these cases the material does not suffer corrosion. To produce fast red and blue articles, the fabric is printed with a discharge consisting of sodium bromate, aluminium chlorate, potassium iodide, and copper sulphide; then steamed, and dyed with alizarine. The function of the potassium iodide is stated to be the counteraction of the excess of oxidising agent, which could corrode the fabric(?). The copper sulphide acts as a carrier of oxygen.

Potassium ferricyanide forms an admirable discharge for indigo, in presence of a strong alkali; the method is, however, confined to the production of a bright rose-red with rhodamine, in which case all the other colours that may be present are also produced as alkaline discharge colours. The colours are printed in association with potassium ferricyanide, then dried, and passed through a strong solution of caustic soda.

The discharge of indigo blue with direct dyes has been proposed by the *Farbenfabriken Fr. Bayer & Co.* The vatted fabric is printed with a suitable dye (chrysophenine, brilliant geranine, etc.), mixed with potassium ferricyanide and magnesium carbonate (as the alkali), and then gently steamed for a quarter of an hour.

The discharge of vat blue with azophore red is proposed by the *Hoechst Farbwerke* for the production of red and blue articles. The naphtholised vatted goods are printed with a mixture of azophore red, a little caustic soda (to neutralise the acid), and sodium bichromate, and then treated in the usual discharge bath for vat blue.

Turkey-Red Discharge Style.—There are two methods for the discharge of Turkey-red—the “*cuve décolorante*” (decolorising vat), introduced by D. Koechlin, and the caustic soda discharge.

In the first-named and older method, the discharge is effected by hypochlorous acid, the dyed goods being printed with a solution of tartaric acid thickened with dextrin, then dried and passed through a roller beck containing a solution of bleaching powder and quicklime. The lime renders the solution alkaline, and thus nullifies the action of the bleaching powder on the unprinted portions of the goods. The decolorising bath must be tested in advance in order to ascertain whether it has been set in a proper manner for securing the end in view. It should not be too alkaline, or the Berlin-blue here used for the blue discharge will be attacked. On issuing from the bath the goods must be squeezed and at once immersed in water.

For yellow, use is made of a mixture of tartaric acid, citric acid, lead acetate, and a little nitric acid, with which the goods are printed; they are dyed out with lukewarm potassium bichromate after passing through the bleaching powder bath. The lime of the bleaching bath precipitates lead hydroxide on the printed impression, which oxide is converted into chrome yellow in the potassium bichromate treatment. To complete the process, the goods are finally entered in dilute hydrochloric acid and then washed.

For blue, the fabric is printed with a mixture of tartaric acid, oxalic acid, potassium ferrocyanide, and ferrous sulphate. The oxidising action of the bleach bath not only discharges the Turkey-red, but also develops the Berlin-blue.

Green is produced by mixing the discharges for red and blue, and then treating in the same way as for yellow.

At the present time the decolorising method is practically abandoned, the work being of a too delicate character. Difficulties arise in connection with the proper setting of the bleach bath and with the printing of the colours, which are strongly acid and loaded with pipeclay. The printing is performed on the Perrotine press.

In the method now practised, the colour lake is dissolved by printing it over with a highly concentrated solution of caustic soda, followed by steaming. In this case as the ordinary Turkey-red, produced by alizarine, is too difficult to discharge, the goods are mordanted with sodium aluminate and dyed with flavopurpurine and anthrapurpurine. For yellow, the fabric is printed with sodium plumbate, and dyed with potassium chromate. Black is produced with aniline black; blue, with indigo by the Schlieper and Baum method—printing on the goods prepared with grape sugar. The after-treatment is as follows:—The goods are exposed to damp

steam for one to two minutes, then hung for a day in the warm, washed, entered in 6° B. sulphuric acid, washed, dyed with 45° B. potassium monochromate, washed, soaped at 45° C., entered in 2° B. sulphuric acid, washed, passed through a bath of boiling bichromate, and washed again.

The **Chrome Discharge Style** has latterly attained considerable practical importance, but is only applicable to soluble dye-stuffs. The goods are padded, for example, with alizarine blue S and a chrome mordant, dried, printed with the discharge, and steamed. The discharge used consists of potassium ferrocyanide and an alkali, or mixtures of chlorates and bromates, as in the indigo discharge method.

For the illumination of the article, and also for parti-coloured discharges, the direct dyes have been recommended; but only a few of them (*e.g.* chloramine yellow) are able to withstand the discharge reagents employed.

The discharge of tannin dyeings is now a very important process, but is mostly applied to the tannin-antimony fixing agents previously brought on to the fibre, and not to the finished dyeing.

The **finished dyeings** are discharged by printing with strong caustic soda and glucose, or with a mixture of ferrocyanide and chlorates, followed by steaming. Only a few tannin dyeings, however, such as brilliant green, Capri-blue, methyl violet, auramine, pyronine, etc., can be discharged really well.

Discharging Manganese Bistre.—The goods are printed with a discharge consisting of tin salt and citric acid, and then hung cold until the discharge is complete, after which they are passed through a cold chalk bath and washed. For coloured discharges use is made of basic dyes—malachite green and methylene blue,—as well as mineral pigments and colour lakes.

The **discharging of ice colours** in the finished state is a matter of considerable difficulty, and is not even yet successfully accomplished.

Recently a tin discharge, said to give good results, has been introduced for nitraniline red by H. Schmidt.

According to a circular of the Hoechst Farbwerke, the bleach vat is applicable to the discharge of dianisidine blue; but the process is a very difficult one to carry out. The present practice for producing discharge effects with ice colours is to employ the chemical reserves, which will be described a little lower down.

Discharging Direct Dyes.—In this case two discharges are used, one with tin salts, the other with zinc dust. The former are confined to colour discharges, the latter to white.

Not all the direct dyes are suitable for the production of dis-

charge effects, washing fastness being essential as well as sensitivity to discharging reagents. All the dyes that will discharge with tin salts will do so (generally still better) with zinc dust; and the latter will discharge the developing dyes in a satisfactory manner.

The discharge for white is prepared by grinding zinc dust to a very fine state of division, in admixture with a little gum water and glycerine, in the indigo mill. It is then mixed with bisulphite and soda and cooled, thickened in a suitable manner, and printed by the aid of the circular brush. The engraving on the cylinder should be as coarse as possible and shallow, to prevent accumulation of the zinc dust therein.

After the printing, the goods are steamed for one hour under a pressure of half an atmosphere, then passed through cold 2–3° B. sulphuric acid, and finally well washed.

For **coloured discharges**, tin salt (stannous chloride) cannot be used alone, owing to its corrosive action on the fibre; and if neutralised with sodium acetate, does not discharge properly. For this reason a mixture of tin salt, tin acetate, and sodium acetate is employed, or the two first, along with a little citric acid and acetic acid. The dyes used for this style are basic dyes, and are printed on the goods in association with tannin and the discharge. After printing, the fabric is passed once or twice through the Mather and Platt, steamed with dry steam for a half to three-quarters of an hour, entered in a tartar emetic bath, and washed. Most of the basic dyes, however, are partially decomposed into their leuco-compounds by the discharge reagent during the steaming process, and, in order to remedy this, it is then necessary to pass the goods through a lukewarm solution of potassium chromate and dry on a hot drum.

For colour discharges with direct dyes it has been proposed to use certain mordant dyes, such as buckthorn berries, gallocyanine, coeruleine, etc., the dye being printed along with tin acetate and a chrome mordant.

The following direct dyes are very suitable for discharging:—Diamine yellow, benzazurine, heliotrope, Congo-red, etc.

4. Reserve Style Printing.

This term is applied to the process whereby various substances, printed on the fabric, are employed to prevent either the absorption or development of the colours subsequently applied by padding or dyeing. Hence there is no difference in principle between discharging and some reserves which are known as discharge reserves.

The chief reserve style articles are those with vat blue, tannin

dyes, alizarine rose, alizarine violet, ice colours, and aniline black.

Reserve printing under vat blue is perhaps the oldest division of this industry; at present it is mostly produced in the hand-press.

Use is made of a mixture of several substances, the reserving action of which is partly mechanical and partly chemical. The chief mechanical reserves are pipeclay and fatty bodies, which prevent the vat liquor from penetrating the underlying cloth. The chemical reserves consist of copper salts for the most part, these also preventing the fixation of the indigo on the printed places, inasmuch as the indigo blue is oxidised to indigo white if it should penetrate into the reserve coating, and is therefore precipitated in merely a loosely adherent manner on the reserve.

After the reserve has been printed, the fabric is well dried, and is then dyed by short immersions in strong vat liquors, and finally soured and washed without friction. The continuous dyeing process cannot be used, since the friction of the guide rollers would dislodge the reserve. The foregoing method is applied to the production of white reserve patterns. For yellow, the reserve also contains lead acetate, and in this case the goods, after dyeing and souring, are passed through lime-water to neutralise the acid and treated in a warm bath of potassium bichromate at the rate of 11 oz. per piece of about sixty yards, whereby yellow lead chromate is formed on the printed parts. The same method is followed for green, except that the reserve is printed on a slightly blued ground instead of on white, so that the resulting chrome yellow combines with the underlying blue to form green.

Reserve with Tannin Dyes.—The method is performed as follows:—The uniled stuff is first printed with a reserve containing an antimony salt, and dried; the suitably thickened basic dye and tannin are next applied, well dried (otherwise the reserve will run), steamed under pressure for half an hour, entered in tartar emetic, washed with hot water, and finally soaped lukewarm.

The reserve should contain as much antimony salt as possible; and, as tartar emetic is too sparingly soluble in pure water, it must be mixed with about its own weight of common salt before dissolving. The more readily soluble potassium-antimony oxalate makes a good reserve when thickened with dextrin, without any admixture of common salt.

Reserves under Alizarine Rose and Violet.—For the production of these very handsome and important articles sodium citrate or tartaric acid is printed as a discharge reserve, dried, topped with the dye, and steamed. In the subsequent washing,

the colour lake is thrown off from the reserved parts of the design on which it was unable to fix.

Reserves under Ice Colours.—The processes under this heading have mostly been developed by the Hoechst Farbwerke. Discharge reserves are employed, and are printed on the goods previously prepared with naphthol, then dried, and padded with the corresponding diazo solution on one side. The goods are passed through a pair of squeezing rollers, the lower of which is slightly convex and dips into the slightly thickened diazo solution.

The white reserve style is attended with great difficulties. Nitraniline red is easier to reserve if the Turkey-red oil in the naphthol preparation be replaced with tragacanth; though the red then comes out too dull and yellowish. The best results are obtained with potassium sulphite. For dianisidine blue and the α -naphthylamine dyes a good reserve is formed by a mixture of tin salt and magnesium chloride.

Coloured reserves are prepared with tin salt, tartaric acid, and citric acid, along with basic dyes, chiefly thioflavine, auramine, rhodamine, methyl violet, and brilliant green. The amount of tin salt should be small, to protect the reserve colours as far as possible. The goods, prepared with naphthol, are printed with the discharge reserve, the basic dye and tannin, then dried in the warm oxidation chamber or on hot cylinders (to fix the tannin dye), developed with the diazo solution, washed, and soaped.

For the production of the red and blue article two different methods are employed. According to the process of the Hoechst Farbwerke, the goods, prepared with naphthol, are printed with diazotised dianisidine and ammonium persulphate, dried, passed through diazotised p -nitraniline to which a little ammonium oxalate has been added, and finally washed and soaped in presence of ammonium oxalate. The diazotised nitraniline combines with the β -naphthol to form red, except in those places occupied by the dianisidine impression, since the excess of β -naphthol there has been destroyed by the ammonium persulphate. The addition of ammonium oxalate to the diazotised nitraniline is for the purpose of preventing the browning of the nitraniline red by the copper in the dianisidine printing colour.

In the second method for producing the same article (Tschudi & Co.'s patent, transferred to the Farbenfabriken Fr. Bayer & Co.) the procedure is reversed, the goods, prepared with naphthol, being printed with a mixture of diazotised p -nitraniline and aluminium sulphate, dried, and passed through diazotised dianisidine; the latter is reserved by the aluminium sulphate, and hence the development of the blue is confined to the unprinted portions of the fabric.

Reserves under Aniline Black.—This article is one of the most important in modern calico-printing. It is produced, by the aid of Prudhomme's black, by first padding the fabric with the solution of aniline ferrocyanide, then drying and printing with a reserve consisting of sodium acetate, soda, and bisulphite, the black being afterwards developed as in ordinary dyeing. The process therefore rests on the circumstance that the aniline ferrocyanide black does not develop until steamed, and that this can be entirely prevented by the aid of alkaline reagents. Sodium aluminate or sulphocyanides can also be employed as reserve.

For the purpose of illumination, use is made of mineral pigments and basic dyes, the direct dyes being less suitable by reason of their inferior brightness. The mineral colours, as well as various colour lakes, are also fixed with albumin. When basic dyes are used, the stuff is padded with a solution of aniline ferrocyanide containing tannin, then dried, and printed with a mixture of dye, tartar emetic, and sodium acetate, the black being developed by steaming.

The newest process for producing the Prudhomme article consists in printing the stuff with a reserve composed mainly of zinc oxide, then drying, and afterwards padding with aniline ferrocyanide solution. Compared with the former method, it offers the advantage of rendering it less necessary to print the goods before oxidation has had time to commence.

5. Topping Printing.

In this method, goods that have already been printed and dried are put through the press again and topped with colour, either all over or in the form of a pattern. In the former event the colours must be in very pale tints, since otherwise the colour of the underlying pattern would undergo a too extensive alteration.

The colours used for complete topping are—alizarine rose, chiefly for the alizarine rose article; alizarine violet, for the corresponding violet article, white reserve being usual in both cases; further, various direct dyes—chloramine yellow, a few diamine yellows, chrysamine, chloramine brown, brilliant geranine, diamine pure blue, diamine violet, etc. For the most part these are applied along with the dressing, and not in the press.

A further application of the same process is when it is desired to dye fabric on the one side only, in which event the stuff is printed with a thickened mordant solution, fixed, and dyed.

The object served by topping a design is either the production of a mixed shade by the superposition of two dyes, or else the discharge of the topping colour on the parts already coloured. In

the latter case the ground colour must contain an addition of a reserve for the topping colour.

Although the method enables the production of some very special effects, it is cumbrous and tedious, especially when several colours have to be applied. The ground and topping colours cannot be applied at the same time, since they would come together in a wet state, and thus produce a mixture of an unanticipated character, or else run. According to Casanova, however, this simplified method of the topping process becomes possible if an addition of turpentine be made to the printing colours.

Wool-Printing.

It is only of late that wool-printing has been practised to any great extent, and it is still far from being as important an industry as that of calico-printing.

The material to be printed must be carefully cleansed. Fine goods and yarns are also first bleached, an operation now performed exclusively with hydrogen peroxide and bisulphite. (*See Wool-Bleaching*).

At an early period it was observed by J. Mercer that in printing half-woollens the dye was very imperfectly taken up by the wool. This he attributed to the reducing action of the wool, probably in consequence of the liberation of the contained sulphur, in the form of sulphuretted hydrogen or sulphurous acid, by steaming. Consequently he recommended that the wool should be prepared by chemicking, a method that is still generally practised.

Most dyes show up much fuller on chemicked wool, though the operation must be performed with great care, or the wool will become yellow and rough. In the case of combed sliver especially, the chemicking must be very slight, since otherwise the spinning and fulling properties of the fibre will be affected. In this case it is better to insufficiently chemick the wool, and to add a little sodium chlorate, as oxidising agent, in preparing the printing colour from dyes that are sensitive to the action of reducing agents, *e.g.* azo dyes. For eosines no chemicking is necessary.

A second method of preparing the wool consists in precipitating stannic acid on the fibre, a treatment that increases the brightness of most printing colours, and also fixes some of them (the eosines, for instance) better.

As in the production of multi-coloured articles the most divergent dye-stuffs are used, it is customary to employ both preparations in the case of finer goods. In such event the goods are damped and padded twice with a $3\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ B. solution of sodium stannate, after

which they are left covered up for some time, and then passed through 2° B. sulphuric acid, to fix the tannic acid, followed by immersion in a solution containing 4 per cent. by volume of 3° B. sodium hypochlorite and 0.43 per cent. of 66° B. sulphuric acid (this being less likely to yellow the wool than bleaching powder and hydrochloric acid). The chemicking bath must be kept replenished by a constant influx of a more concentrated solution, since otherwise the first portions of the goods would be more strongly chemicked than the rest.

Hand and cylinder presses are used for printing, as in the case of cottons; common and very wide goods are printed by hand, wool muslins and similar fine goods by the cylinder press. The cylinders must be deeply engraved, and a very elastic pressure secured by the use of thick soft blanket on the backing rollers. The printed goods should be dried very gently.

The dyes used in wool-printing are in general the same as for dyeing this fibre—chiefly acid dyes; and dextrin British gum, and gum, are used for thickening. The printing colours are almost invariably prepared with an addition of an organic acid, chiefly acetic acid, though in some cases tartaric acid or oxalic acid is preferable. For light tints and dyes that equalise with difficulty, it is advisable to employ slightly ammoniacal printing colours. When the colours are required to remain slightly moist after drying, a little glycerine (5–8 oz. per gallon) should be added to the printing colour.

Printing is succeeded by steaming, which fixes the colour. This operation must in this instance be performed damp, since the majority of printing colours on wool do not develop properly under dry steaming; on the other hand, excessive moisture is injurious, since it makes the colours run. Consequently, in order to ensure correct results, the steaming must be effected in presence of a pre-determined and readily controllable quantity of moisture, a condition fulfilled by enveloping the goods in cotton cloths previously impregnated with a definite quantity of water (10–20 per cent. of their own weight) by padding or sprinkling. This weight can be ascertained by weighing these backing cloths before and after damping. Steaming is continued for an hour to an hour and a half, according to the dye, and mostly without pressure. A careful washing follows, in order to prevent the soiling of the white by the dye; finally, the stuff is slightly dressed with gum, glycerine, or starch.

Wool-printing is therefore a far easier operation, and one presenting fewer technical difficulties, than calico-printing; in fact, the now so popular discharge printing is the only difficult form.

In this case the chief question is, which of the dyes are suitable for discharging, and which capable of properly resisting the action of the discharge reagents.

As in discharging the direct dyes on cotton, coloured discharges are here effected with tin salt, and white discharges with zinc dust and bisulphite.

Most of the azo dyes discharge well, though here, as in the direct dyes on cotton, there exist difficulties that have not yet been overcome.

The dyes best resisting the discharging action of tin salt, and therefore constituting the most suitable dyes for coloured discharge style, are—the majority of the basic dyes, the eosines, and the acid dyes of the triphenylmethane series.

The colour discharges contain 10–20 per cent. and upwards of tin salt, and about 5 per cent. of sodium acetate. After printing, the goods are steamed for an hour without pressure. The discharge dyes develop best on wool that has been chemicked and prepared with tin. The amount of tin salt depends chiefly on the sensitivity of the dye in question, but also on another circumstance, viz. that in some instances it is not necessary to fully discharge the dye. For example, when a naphthol black dyeing is printed over with a blue discharge containing about 15 per cent. of tin salt, and is afterwards steamed, a sufficiently pure discharge blue is obtained; on the other hand, for an equally good discharge red, 20 per cent. of tin salt is necessary.

For white discharges, the discharge must contain about 40 per cent. of tin salt, and the goods must be damp steamed for ten minutes. However, as it is impossible to produce a pure white in this way, recourse must be had to the second discharge reagent, prepared with zinc dust, bisulphite, and a little soda and glycerine, the reaction being completed by steaming for an hour without pressure.

Silk-Printing.

The same methods and printing colours are used for printing silk as in the case of wool, except that no preparation of the fabric is necessary, and that dry steaming is practised. After steaming, the goods are for the most part only carefully washed, the colours revived as in dyeing, and given a slight dressing.

In this case also an important part is played by discharge printing with the same discharges; in contrast, however, to wool, a number of effects can be produced on silk by reserve printing (with fatty reserves) and dyeing.

Printing Yarns, Warps, and Combed Sliver.

The printing of yarns is a comparatively young industry, but one that is constantly increasing in importance on account of the possibility of producing a variety of patterns by weaving the partly coloured yarns. Formerly it was the practice to tie the yarn together and dye it at intervals of its length, and subsequently the hand-press was employed for this class of printing; but at present the work is done exclusively on printing frames of special construction.

The printing of combed sliver is termed "Vigoureux printing," and has latterly come very much to the front. The printed sliver is used for the production of mixtures, to which it imparts a very uniform appearance.

The composition and method of fixing the printing colours are, in the main, the same as in cloth-printing.

CHAPTER VI

DRESSING AND FINISHING

THE operations of dressing and finishing comprise all the treatments employed to impart to the fabric the special feel and appearance likely to render it most attractive to the purchaser.

The number of methods employed in the finishing of fabrics is almost beyond count; they may, however, be all classed under two heads—

1. By impregnating the material with various substances;
2. By subjecting it to a small number of mechanical operations, which, however, are performed in very different modifications.

The finishing of fabrics almost entirely belongs to the domain of mechanical technology, its practical performance being only in a very few instances (such as calico-printing) the task of the chemist. Nevertheless a certain degree of acquaintance with this branch of the subject is necessary to the dyer's chemist, on the one hand as supplementing his special knowledge, and, on the other, to enable him to detect many defects that may arise in the course of the various operations coming under the head of the finishing process, which he would otherwise be unable to do.

Finishing may in part precede dyeing, in which event the first part of the process will be the task of the dyer, whereas the remainder is frequently performed in special establishments—"the finisher's."

In the cotton industry the term finishing applies exclusively to the concluding stages of manufacture.

The complete description of this entire process in all its many ramifications can only be given in a work specially devoted to the subject; and the author will therefore confine himself in the following to the means employed in this stage of the manufacture.

The substances used in the finishing process are—

1. Such as are intended to render the material hard and stiff. These comprise chiefly the various starches—wheat, potato, rice, and maize starch; also several starch derivatives, such as dextrin and apparatine; furthermore, gum, tragacanth, size, vegetable mucilage, decoctions of lichens and algæ, etc.

Of these materials the most frequently used are wheat starch, potato starch, and dextrin. The softest dressing is furnished by dextrin, next in order coming potato starch.

Apparatine is a product prepared by treating starch with caustic soda in the cold, the excess of alkali being neutralised with an acid after the reaction has continued for about two hours. Appartine imparts greater stiffness to the material and is less easily washed out than any other dressing.

2. **Fatty substances**, such as tallow, stearin, paraffin, waxes, oils, Turkey-red oil, etc., to render the stuff soft and glossy.

3. **Hygroscopic and softening materials**, to diminish the stiffness of starched goods, such as glycerine, magnesium chloride, zinc salts, ammonia salts, etc. Too much of these adjuncts must not be used, or the cloth will become wet and flaccid on exposure to damp air.

4. **Loading Ingredients**.—China clay (a fine white clay), kaolin, insoluble salts of lime and baryta, etc.

5. **Colouring for the Dressing Preparations**.—Chief of these is ultramarine, which is so largely used in “blueing” cottons and linens, its object being to convert the yellowish tinge of the goods into a more or less pure white. In printed goods the selection of the correct shade of ultramarine is a matter of some moment, since here the degree of whiteness may vary. Some of the ingredients used in the dressing (*e.g.* China clay) absorb ultramarine, the shade of which is then modified accordingly.

Ultramarine is difficult to moisten with water, and should therefore be mixed to a paste with a little alcohol. Dressing preparations containing this colour should not be kept long or they may turn sour, to the detriment of the ultramarine, which is sensitive to acids. To impart a strong blueing to any fabric, it is better to apply a weak ultramarine dressing two or three times over than to treat once with a stronger preparation.

Other colouring matters employed in dressing preparations are Berlin-blue, ochres, direct dyes, basic dyes, etc., either to impart a given shade of colour to a white or printed surface, or else to prevent the colours being dimmed by a superimposed white dressing.

6. **Metals or their sulphides**, in the state of fine powder, for the purpose of producing a metallic lustre. They are prepared by heating the metallic sulphides with fatty substances or by mixing different metal powders, and can be purchased ready for use. They are applied to the fabric by dusting or printing.

7. **Waterproofing** is effected by the application of fatty bodies, caoutchouc solution, salts of alumina or magnesia, etc., either together or separately. The most important process is the water-

proofing of woollen goods, which is generally effected by first impregnating the material with a 2–3° B. solution of aluminium acetate and then passing through steam containing an admixture of fatty substances.

8. **Fireproofing**, or at least non-inflammability, is secured by applying to the stuff a considerable quantity of various salts, such as borax, ammonium phosphate, salts of magnesia, silicates, tungstates, etc. The last-named salts, sodium tungstate in particular, are said to give the best results.

9. **Antiseptics for the Prevention of Mould.**—The majority of the means proposed for this purpose are no use, *e.g.* tannin, camphor, oxalic acid, boric acid, etc.; the most efficacious are zinc chloride, zinc sulphate, and salicylic acid.

The dressing preparations are compounded with the assistance of the ingredients specified above. Sometimes they contain only a single ingredient, *e.g.* a starch, dextrin, gum, size, Turkey-red oil,

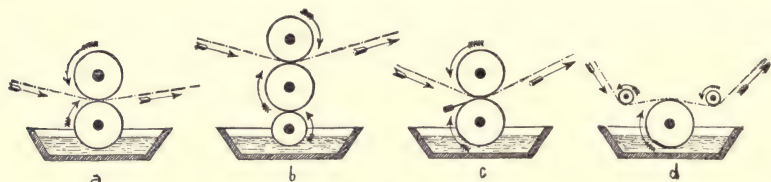


FIG. 42.

etc., applied in the form of a solution or paste; mostly, however, several are employed together, *e.g.* wheat starch and potato starch, or starch and fat, or hygroscopic substances. The number of ingredients may amount to as many as ten, which are mixed together and boiled in the same class of pan as that already described for starch thickening; the product is passed through a strainer.

In most cases the finishing process is not completed by the application of the dressing preparation to the goods, a further mechanical treatment being required to impart the desired feel and appearance to the stuff.

Dressing preparations are confined almost exclusively to cottons and linens, the finishing of woollen and silk goods being usually effected without the aid of these preparations, and merely by mechanical treatment; and even where used at all on these latter goods these dressings are of very simple constitution. Solutions of gum, dextrin, or tragacanth are used for silks, and solutions of gum, size, vegetable mucilage, magnesium chloride, etc., for woollens.

The application of the dressing preparation is in nearly all cases made to the back of the fabric, and is performed in different ways,

according as the quantity used is great or small. This method of working is particularly advantageous in the case of printed goods since otherwise the printed colours would be dimmed by the dressing.

The simplest way is to pass the goods, face upwards, between a pair of rollers, the under one of which is covered with a layer of cotton and dips into a trough containing the dressing preparation (Fig. 42, *a*); the heavier the pressure applied to the rollers the smaller the quantity of dressing that will be left in the fabric, and the farther will it be forced into the material. Another way is to arrange below the pressure rollers a third, which dips into the dressing and distributes it on to the under roller of the pair (*b* in Fig. 42). For conveying still smaller quantities of dressing prepara-

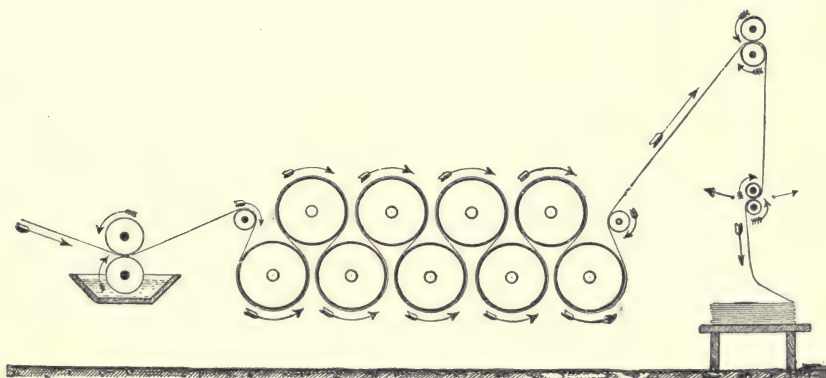


FIG. 43.

tion on to the fabric, use is made of a stippled under roller, fitted with a scraper (*c* in Fig. 42). When the dressing is to be pressed as little as possible into the substance of the fabric, the arrangement shown in *d*, Fig. 42, is employed.

Finally, to apply the dressing equally to both sides, the stuff itself is passed through the preparation and is then squeezed between a pair of rollers.

Where, as in the case of thin preparations containing ultramarine, there is a likelihood of the ingredients becoming separated, a stirring device is provided in the trough; the latter can also be heated in case the application of hot dressings is advisable.

Sometimes, in the case of woollen or silk goods, the dressing is applied with a sponge to the back of the stuff stretched taut in a frame.

After applying the dressing, the next step is to dry it, for which purpose use is made of the cylinder drying machine (in the case of

cottons and linens), *i.e.* a number of heated metal cylinders, generally arranged in two rows, as shown in Fig. 43.

When it is desired that only one side of the material should come into contact with the heated cylinders, these of the lower row are replaced by unheated wooden rollers. This class of drying machine is employed also for drying goods that have not been dressed. In some cases a single large drying cylinder is used, or the goods may be dried on frames (see below) or in the air (silks and woollens).

Frequently the necessity arises for straightening out the goods and stretching them out to their proper width. In such event the drying is effected on the tenting frame, of which there are several modifications. They may, however, all be divided into two main types—the circular frame, consisting of a large drying cylinder, fitted on both sides with adjustable stretchers, and the ordinary horizontal tentering frame, wherein the fabric is conducted over steam plates and hot pipes by means of two hooked endless chains. The stretching device can be adjusted to agree with the desired breadth of the fabric under treatment. There are also stationary tentering frames, in which the cloth is held on the stretch, without motion; these are chiefly used for light cotton fabrics, muslins, tarlatans, etc., and consist of wooden frames, the sides of which are movable, and are provided with clamps for holding the fabric. The latter, when treated with the dressing preparation, is stretched in the frame, which is of the same length as the piece of cloth; it is then stretched to the desired extent, and left to dry in the frame. Similar frames are also used for woollens and silks. Sometimes the sides of the tentering frame are provided with an alternating reciprocal movement, so that the material can be kept moving to and fro whilst drying, in order to distribute the dressing preparation embedded between the individual threads of the fabric, and thus impart a greater uniformity of appearance to the whole.

In finishing cotton goods, the following operations are employed, in addition to those already mentioned:—Damping, gassing, shearing, raising, calendering, mangling, beating, moiréing, stamping, folding, lapping, measuring, and pressing. Of these processes two are employed at a much earlier stage than the rest; gassing before bleaching, and shearing after bleaching is completed.

Shearing is performed in order to remove coarse irregularities, loose ends, naps, etc., and is an indispensable operation in the case of printed fabrics, since these irregularities would spoil the impression, by preventing the access of the colour to the underlying body of the fabric, and thus leaving white marks in the pattern on

the subsequent removal of the loose ends and naps. Various forms of shearing machine are employed, the cutting being usually effected by a revolving cylinder, carrying a number of spiral steel blades, working against a fixed horizontal knife. The fabric is first passed over brushes which raise up the loose ends, fibres, etc., into position for removal by the cutting mechanism. Usually these machines are fitted with two sets of cutters and several brushes, to enable the stuff to be shorn on both sides.

After leaving the shearing machine, the pieces are opened and brushed, to remove the cut fly, and are then finished—if to be left white—or dyed, printed, etc.

Damping follows starching and drying, in order to fit the goods for the subsequent treatment, the fibres lacking the requisite flexibility when dry. The damping machine employed for this purpose consists chiefly of a quick-running brush, partly immersed in a trough of water, which is thus discharged, in the form of a fine spray, on to the goods as they are drawn by. A screen of fine gauze is interposed between the brush and the goods in order to keep back large drops of water, which would otherwise render the damping irregular.

Goods intended for stiff finish are not put through any further finishing process, properly so called; but those required to exhibit softness and lustre are next calendered. The calendering machines used, for the most part, consist of three superimposed rollers, subjected to heavy pressure, the middle roller being of steel, the other two being made of paper (Fig. 44), by pressing a number of layers of very good class paper upon steel cores. The use of steel rollers throughout would be calculated to damage the fibre under the heavy pressures employed. According to the effect desired, the goods in the calender may be fed either between two of the cylinders or all three. This treatment breaks up the cohesion of the dressing preparation, and imparts softness and gloss to the fabric. Hot

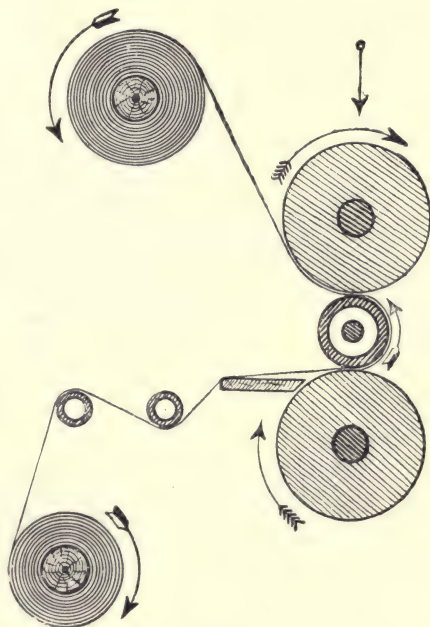


FIG. 44.

calendering gives a better gloss, and therefore the steel cylinder is provided with a steam-heating arrangement. To obtain the highest degree of gloss, the goods are put through the friction calender, which has two steel cylinders and an intermediate paper one, the friction being produced by running one of the steel cylinders faster than the other. The effect is sometimes heightened by giving the steel cylinder a lateral motion as well. If a single passage through the machine does not produce the desired result the operation is repeated. Calendering machines are now made with a larger number of rollers (up to six).

The action of the calender greatly depends on the nature of the dressing preparation employed. Thus, if the fabric be dressed merely with wheat starch, it cannot be raised to any special degree

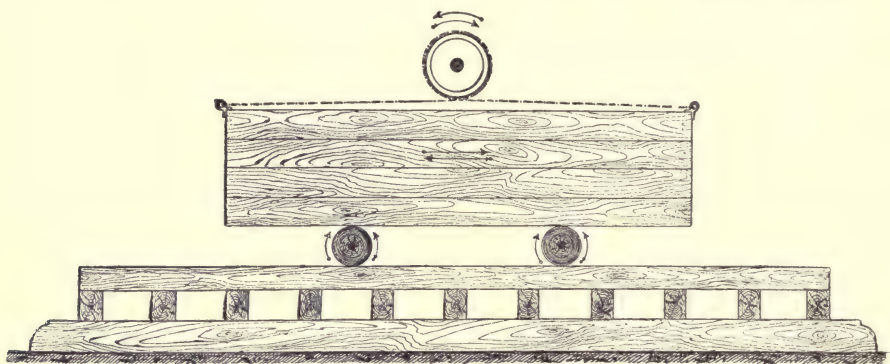


FIG. 45.

of softness and gloss by repeated calendering, the operation being therefore restricted to crushing the dressing. For glossy finish, use is made of fats, waxes, stearin, etc.

Sometimes unstarched goods are calendered, the object being to make them denser in texture, in order to retard the penetration of the printing colour or the subsequently applied dressing preparation.

A process similar to calendering is that of mangling. Box-mangles are generally used, consisting of rectangular wooden boxes (Fig. 45) filled with stones and lumps of old iron, and run to and fro over a couple of rollers, on which the fabric to be mangled is wound tightly and without creasing. The goods must be damped in a perfectly uniform manner, since otherwise the fabric might become weakened under the enormous pressure applied. According to the finish in view, the rollers are large or small, and made of wood or metal,—large wooden rollers furnishing the best gloss of all. As a rule, the goods are left in the mangle during four to six double traverses of the weighted box.

Beetling is a stamping process which produces an atlas-like gloss. The goods are wound on a wooden roller, covered with calico and situated underneath a row of wooden stamps actuated by lifting cams (Fig. 46). There are usually two pieces in a length, and three lengths side by side on each roller.

In the section shown in the drawing, the lifting cams are represented by *b*, and are mounted, spirally, on the shaft *a*; *c* is one of the wooden stamps; *e* is the full roller in the machine; *d*, one that is finished, and *f*, one filled with cloth ready for insertion in the machine.

The rollers revolve at slow speed, and at the same time are

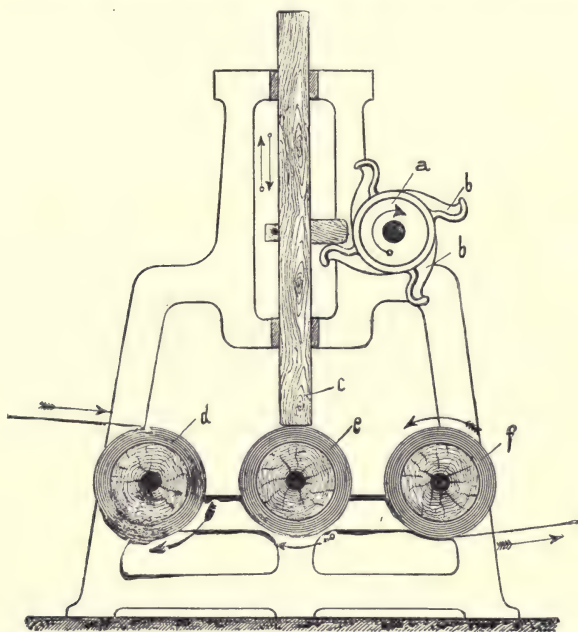


FIG. 46.

moved to and fro longitudinally. After being beetled for about half an hour, the goods are taken out, wound on another similar roller, and put through the same treatment over again.

In the new Mather and Platt beetles, the wooden stamps are fastened to metallic springs and are much more productive than the older form. They have not yet, however, been able to entirely displace the older machines, the latter furnishing better results in point of quality.

Some fabrics are moiréd or stamped.

Moiré or watered effects are optical effects produced by compressing some parts of the threads flat, and leaving the remainder

in their natural condition, thus producing the impression of a pattern.

Various methods are employed for this purpose—

1. By running the fabric double through the calender ;
2. By mangling ;
3. By calendering between two rollers, one of which is smooth, the other engraved with a large number of mutually intersecting lines ; a lateral movement is also imparted during the rotation ;
4. The fabric is subjected to the action of an engraved roller bearing a *moiré* design.

Soft fabrics alone are suitable for this process, and consequently fatty dressing preparations are employed.

Stamping consists in producing a raised design by the aid of an engraved roller, and can therefore only be practised on soft finish goods. A three-cylinder calender is employed, the middle one being of metal and engraved, the two others of paper.

Some goods finished with fatty dressings are also lusted or glossed by ironing with a steel iron.

The final operations in finishing cotton goods consist of folding, lapping, measuring, and pressing, each effected by the aid of special appliances. Pressing, the object of which is to reduce bulk, is mostly performed in hydraulic presses where a large number of pieces, arranged side by side and piled one row on another, and separated by plates of zinc or boards, are treated at one operation.

The selection and performance of the foregoing operations in the finishing process depend on the quality of the goods, and may differ considerably. Some white goods are not dressed at all, but are simply damped and calendered hot (so-called "natural finish"). Hard finish is produced by merely starching and drying, and "half smooth" finish by a second calendering, etc.

Raised goods (flannels, fustian, calmuck, etc.) require a special treatment to produce a soft nap or pile on one or both sides of the stuff. This is effected in the raising machine, which mainly consists of horizontal cylinders arranged in a semicircle and fitted with a number of steel points. One part of the set is moved in one direction, the rest in the opposite direction. The goods to be raised must be perfectly dry. Raising is applied to both white and coloured or printed goods ; in the latter cases the raising may be effected before or after dyeing or printing.

Raised cotton goods of this kind serve as cheap imitations of woollen goods.

Linens are finished in just the same manner as cottons. In this class of goods the beetling process plays a very important part,

and imparts to these fabrics their highly prized gloss. Linens are not put through the raising process.

Hemp and jute goods are generally calendered under heavy pressure, in order to press the threads out flat, and thus give the fabric a closer appearance.

The finishing of silk goods resembles that of cottons, inasmuch as the same operations, or nearly so, are employed in both cases. However, as stated in the introduction, silken fabrics are rarely stiffened with dressing preparations; and these, when used at all, are of very simple constitution, containing nothing but gum, dextrin, or size.

Each separate quality and kind of fabric requires special treatment. As a rule, the fabric, on leaving the loom, is cleaned by means of steel roller brushes, then shorn or gassed, rubbed with smoothly polished steel plates to straighten out the threads, and eventually coated, while in a stretched condition, with dressing preparation, applied on the back; then dried and pressed or calendered. Properly woven silk goods are mostly only warm pressed after the projecting fibres have been removed and the threads straightened out and stopped. The pressing is effected either in the press, with hot plates, or in the calender. The finest silks are merely smoothened by cold pressing. These fabrics are neither raised, beetled, nor mangled.

Finishing Woollens.—Woollen fabrics are put through a more complex finishing process than any other kind of textile goods. The methods employed depend on whether the fabric belongs to the woollen or the worsted class. In either case a large number of operations have to be gone through, according to the quality, etc., and these consist of various mechanical treatments, the application of dressing preparations being seldom resorted to.

Of the operations already described, those of beetling, mangling, moiréing, and relief-stamping are never applied to woollens; and the other processes of tenting, shearing, raising, and pressing are performed in a different manner from that practised in the case of cottons.

Shearing is effected in special shearing machines. Raising is an important operation, especially in the case of woollen cloths, and is performed with card clothing nailed on wooden rollers, a series of these rollers, arranged in a semicircle, forming the principal feature of the raising machine. Dull carding pins are employed in the first stage, in order to bring up the nap slowly, with a minimum of injury to the felt, and develop the pile in a gradual manner. Subsequently sharper pins are used to stroke out the

pile, smoothly and in one direction, on the surface of the cloth.

The fabric must be raised in a damp state, since when dry the fibres are not sufficiently supple, and are liable to injury during the process. On the other hand, the fabric must not be too wet, or the carding pins will become too soft. The longer the cloth is raised in a semi-wet state, the better the gloss and the more firmly will the nap be stroked down on the surface.

Pressing is a far more important operation in the finishing of woollen goods than in any other fabrics, and is performed in a special manner for each different class of material. Hot pressing alone is given, since it is only by heat (or moisture) that the wool hairs are rendered flexible. Hydraulic presses are generally used, the goods being piled up, a number of pieces together, with hot metal sheets between each two pieces, and layers of millboard between the separate folds of the cloth. The modifications of this operation consist in differences of duration and degree of pressure applied, the greatest lustre being obtained by prolonged exposure to heavy pressure. To produce high lustre the cloth is pressed several times under heavy pressure and for some hours at a time, being often left in the press all night. The pressure is applied lightly at first and increased afterwards. Some woollens are pressed for only a few minutes, the object in such cases being merely to smooth them out without producing any lustre.

A variety of continuous pressing, usually employed as a preparation for the actual process, is effected on the trough press, a machine consisting of a trough-shaped metal plate in which a metal cylinder slowly revolves, both being heated. The fabric passes slowly between the cylinder and the plate, and is thereby gently pressed and smoothed.

The finishing of woollens also comprises three operations that are unknown in the finishing of other fabrics, viz. steaming, crabbing, and fulling or milling.

The steaming process is also known as "decatiring," from an old French word meaning to deprive of lustre, though, as a matter of fact, this sense of the word is only applicable to one modification of the process, namely, the removal of the greasy lustre produced on woollen cloth by pressing, the pile of the cloth being caused to stand up a little by passing the fabric over an arched plate of perforated metal through which a current of steam is being passed.

In the process of steaming, properly so-called, the fabric is wound tightly around a perforated metal cylinder, through the axis of which steam is admitted to the interior. The steam renders the pile soft and plastic, and fixes it in the position it has been caused

to assume by the mutual pressure of the superimposed layers of cloth. The more tightly the stuff has been wound on the cylinder and the longer it is steamed, the greater the resulting lustre.

Some articles are steamed for a long time, and then left to cool down before being unrolled from the cylinder; others, again, are steamed for only a few minutes, and immediately unwound; from which it is evident that, like pressing, this operation can be performed in a variety of ways.

In other cases, again, the goods on the steaming cylinder are immersed in a vat or chest into which steam is admitted, *i.e.* steam is applied to both sides of the goods at once.

Crabbing is a mild form of steaming applied chiefly to half-wool goods. In this operation the goods are more or less tightly wound on a roller, which revolves in a vessel of hot water. This treatment softens the pile and fixes it in its existing position, with the result that the subsequent displacement likely to occur, owing to different degrees of hygroscopicity in the fibres of these mixed fabrics, is retarded.

Fulling or milling is principally employed in the production of woollen cloth, and is an operation based on the felting capacity of wool fibre. In performing this treatment, the woollen fabric is fastened end for end like a sack, and impregnated with a solution of soap in a fulling mill (see Fig. 47), where it is left for some considerable time.

The fulling mill consists chiefly of two adjustable rollers, a_1, a_2 , through which the material is passed in its full breadth; c_1, c_2 , are the real milling rollers; d is a conduit in which the goods are pressed into folds; e is the flap closing the outlet of same, and f the spring acting on this flap.

Fig. 47 also shows the feed conduit, b ; the band of cloth, g ; a perforated board, h , which tips up when a knot occurs in the band, and thus stops the machine; i is a flap through which the fulling liquor is introduced, and k is the door.

The effect of the milling process is in direct relation to the length of exposure, and also depends on the setting of the aforesaid rollers. Thus, for example, a piece of cloth 50 yards long can be milled until the length has shrunk to 30 yards; again, military blankets can be shrunk from their original dimensions of $11\frac{1}{2}$ ft. by 82 ft. to 5 ft. by 65 ft. in about four hours.

Slight milling is also applied to some worsted fabrics, and even to mixed fabrics, special effects being often produced by this means.

The process known as "impregnation" is often combined with milling, and consists of incorporating shorn hairs with the fabric

by adding to the latter in the fulling mill as much as 20–25 per cent., and sometimes up to 70–80 per cent., of its own weight of the pile hairs obtained by shearing the cloth. These are applied to the underside of the material, with which they become incorporated, thanks to the felting property of the fibres.

Much has been written and discussed of late respecting the acid process of milling, wherein the soap solution is replaced by sulphuric acid. Up to the present, however, the method has only given good results in the manufacture of felt.

Finally, a process of curling is employed, chiefly for the purpose of imparting a curly appearance to the surface of winter

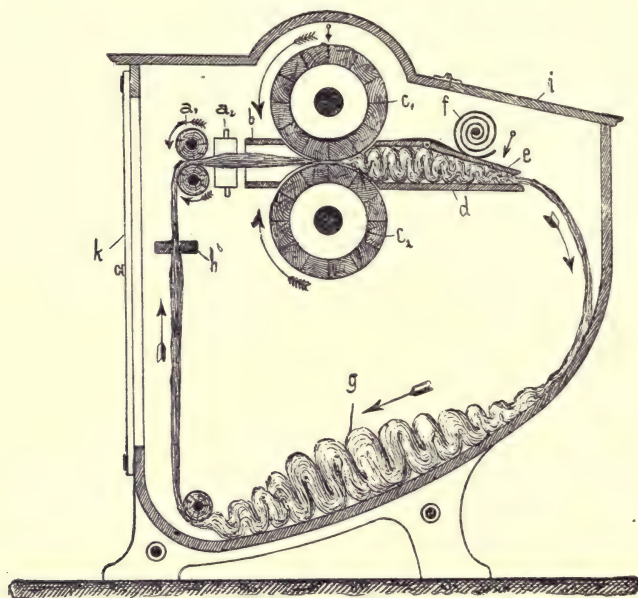


FIG. 47.

overcoatings. In this process a plate, fitted with a brush, is pressed on the dampened cloth, and set in motion in various ways, mostly rotatory, the motion influencing the style of curl produced.

The complex character of the finishing process applied to woollen fabrics may be gathered from the following summary of the operations comprised in two very common modes of finishing:—

1. A smooth, so-called "Oriental" cloth, on issuing from the loom, is first washed with soda, then milled, carbonised, raised twice, tented, shorn, passed through the trough press, pressed in the hydraulic press, and steamed. Up to this point it is immaterial whether the stuff has been dyed in the wool or will be in the piece but from this stage onward their treatment is different, piece-dyed

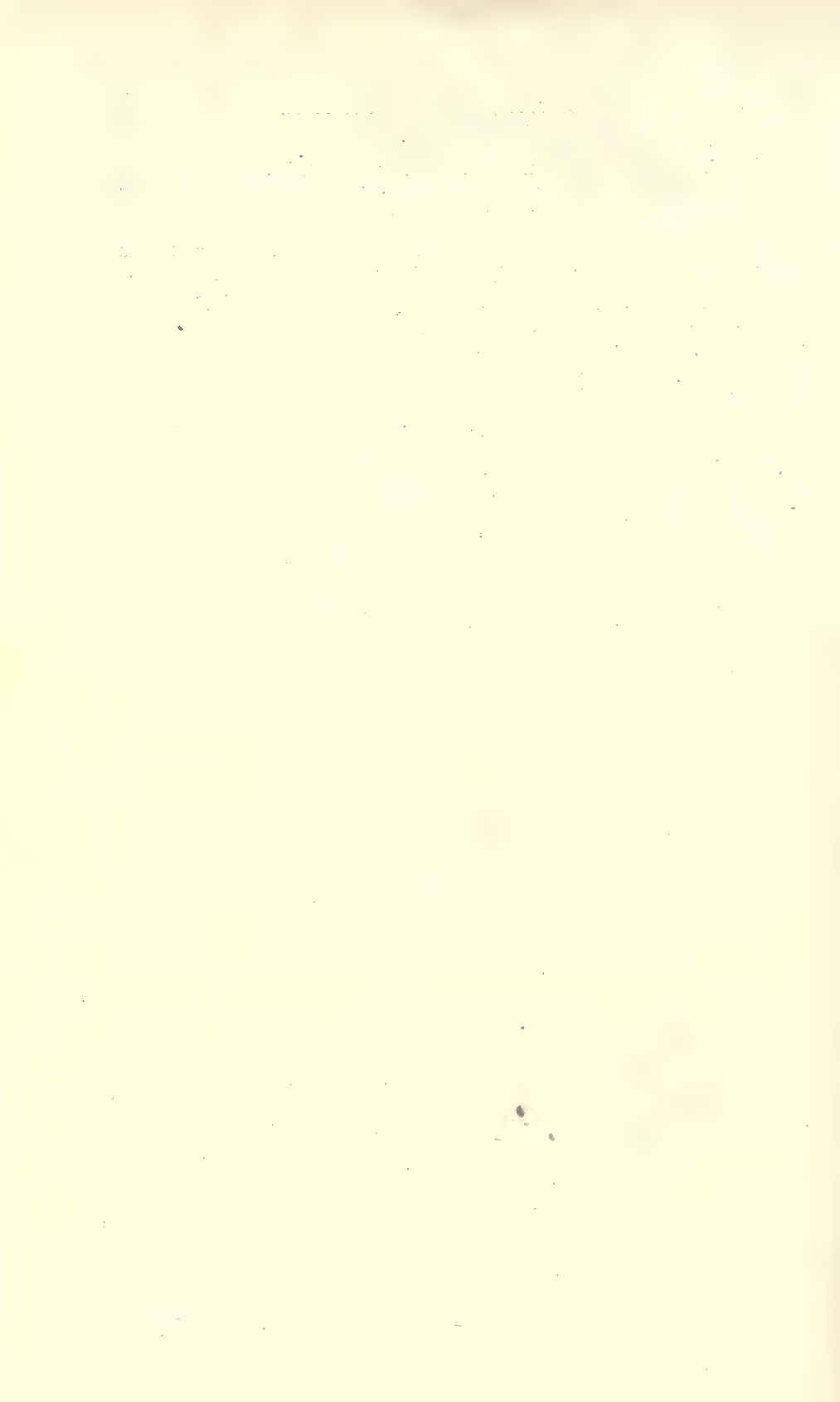
goods being then dyed, washed, dried on the tenting frame, shorn, and (generally) pressed thrice. Wool-dyed goods are damped, raised, shorn, pressed, steamed, and pressed twice.

2. Worsteds are mostly nepped, washed with soap and soda, dried, gassed, brushed, gassed, damped, steamed, tented, dyed, washed, crabbed, tented, shorn, pressed, steamed, and pressed again.



THE END

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AMMONIA AND ITS COMPOUNDS: Their Manufacture and Uses. By CAMILLE VINCENT, Professor at the Central School of Arts and Manufactures, Paris. Translated from the French by M. J. SALTER. Royal 8vo. 113 pp. 1901. Thirty-two Illustrations. Price 5s.; India and Colonies, 5s. 6d.; Other Countries, 6s.; strictly net.

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TEXTILE RAW MATERIALS AND THEIR CONVERSION INTO YARNS. (The Study of the Raw Materials and the Technology of the Spinning Process.) Text-book for Textile, Trade and Higher Technical Schools. By JULIUS ZIPSER. Translated from German by CHARLES SALTER. 302 Illustrations. 480 pp. Demy 8vo. 1901. Price 10s. 6d.; India and Colonies, 11s.; Other Countries, 12s.; strictly net.

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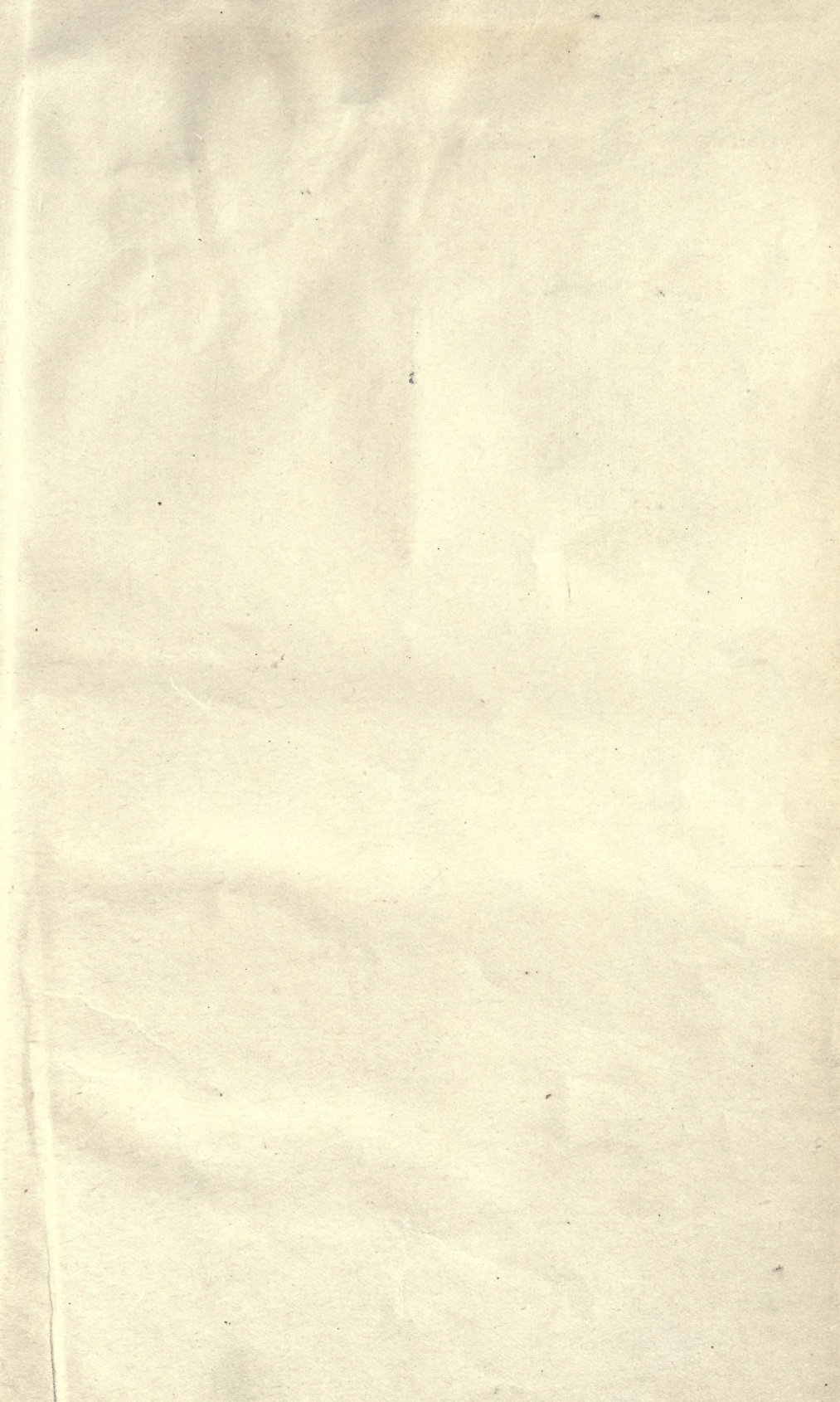
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